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The Quarterly Journal of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada

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WICHITA FALLS, TEXAS

February 15, 1953

To my fellow employees:

This is a letter I have been waiting twenty-five years to write. Today, I have been in the public service for a quarter of a century. During this time I have endeavored to impress my associates with the fact that every job in the municipal government is important, otherwise it would be eliminated. Likewise I have tried to impress our people with the dignity of all labor. I am convinced that a career in municipal government service gives one a personal satisfaction and a pride of accomplishment far beyond the greater financial returns which have been possible in other lines of endeavor.

In all the Scriptures, I do not think there is a more touching passage on service to your fellow man than the incident immediately following the Last Supper. After Jesus and His disciples had finished eating, He gathered them around Him and began washing their feet. Peter said, "Lord, do you wash my feet?" And Jesus answered him saying, "Whosoever will be chief among you, let him be the servant of all." This passage exemplifies that even the greatest among us must serve humanity, and service is the giving of one's self. While no one can become a savior of society, everyone can become a servant of society.

You recall that in November 1952, we made an attitude survey in our organization. In this survey there were 40 questions covering all phases of your working conditions. Some of these were key questions and consequently more important than the others. The answers to these questions particularly gave me the most positive gratification of all; because I felt that the things I have been advocating for these many years were believed in by a majority of my associates.

The survey reflected that 97 per cent of our employees felt either mildly or definitely that they were a part of the organization; 91 per cent felt that their job was "quite interesting;" and 99 per cent felt that their contribution to the successful operation of the City was important.

The affirmative answers to these questions by such an overwhelming majority of our people leads me to the definite conclusion that the public service is coming of age, and that municipal employees have a higher respect for the services which they are performing for the welfare of the community.

If during my quarter century of public management, I have had some small part in establishing the feeling that people and their jobs are important, then I can say that this has been my proudest achievement.

Your fellow public servant,

Bill Taylor

BILL N. TAYLOR
City Manager

A City Manager Writes a Letter

Research in Organization Effectiveness . . . . JOHN M. PFIFFNER

THE ORGANIZATION research project at the University of Southern California is charged with studying the effectiveness of organizations.[1] The methodology consists of discovering organizations which are more effective and comparing them with those which are less effective. Thus far, the general procedure has been to administer questionnaires to members of both the more and less effective groups and compare the answers by appropriate statistical procedures.[2] The questionnaires consist almost entirely of five-option multiple-choice questions based upon a continuum. For instance, one question asked a forest supervisor's immediate subordinates to indicate the frequency of staff conferences by checking one of the following: daily, weekly, monthly, quarterly, semi-annually or less. A typical continuum consisted of: always, usually, occasionally, rarely, never. For purposes of analysis, the questionnaire items are grouped into behavioral dimensions of about six each. Typical dimensions are: being informed, participation, being helpful, degree of formalization, and good functional supervision.

At this writing, questionnaires have been administered in the California Region of the United States Forest Service, the Los Angeles Region of the California State Department of Employment, a Naval Ship Yard, and the Overhaul and Repair Department of a Naval Air Station. The naval studies have involved only civilian personnel, dominantly in the blue-collar category. The first two of these studies have been completed and issued in the form of technical reports.[3] As will be indicated below, most of the significant findings in the first forest study were confined to the top hierarchical levels. So we are projecting a second forest study at the ranger district level. Several hundred critical incidents have been collected relative to the behavior of forest personnel. These will be used as a basis for formulating questionnaire items and behavioral dimensions.

Criteria

THOSE who attempt empirical research in the social sciences are always plagued by the problem of standards. It is the conundrum faced by those who would validate personnel selection tests. Usually one ends up by correlating test scores with supervisor's ratings of job performance. We also have been forced reluctantly to rely upon ratings for the most part. We prefer criteria based upon some form of measured production but have had difficulty in discovering organizations which meet this standard along with two others, namely, a large enough number to assure statistical reliability and sufficient homogeneity of function. In two studies we obtained some work measurement criteria,[4] but did not feel justified in relying upon them completely.

[1] The work was supported by the Office of Naval Research under contract number N6-ONR-23815, NR 170-026, with the Group Psychology Branch. The project is supervised by an interdisciplinary committee consisting of J. P. Guilford, psychology, John M. Pfiffner, public administration, and Harvey J. Locke, sociology.

[2] We have been fortunate in having the constant counsel and technical advice of Professor Guilford whose standing in this field is recognized. The immediate project supervisors have been first, A. L. Comrey, now of the Department of Psychology, University of California, Los Angeles, and at present Robert C. Wilson. Miss Helen P. Beem, sociology, has been a member of the working team from the beginning.

● DR. JOHN M. PFIFFNER is Professor of Public Administration at the University of Southern California.

[3] Andrew L. Comrey, John M. Pfiffner, and Helen P. Beem, "Factors Influencing Organizational Effectiveness. I. The U. S. Forest Survey," *Personnel Psychology*, V (1952), pp. 307-28, and Comrey, Pfiffner, and Beem, "Factors Influencing Organizational Effectiveness. II. The Department of Employment Survey," *Personnel Psychology*, in press.

[4] While measured production is perhaps more prevalent in private industry, one should not hasten to the conclusion that it is the general rule there. It is not too easy to locate group productivity criteria even in private industry.

Our contract calls for the study of "organization effectiveness," of which leadership is only one phase. Hence, a study based upon the rating of leaders might not correlate with that of the organization unit. While curb-stone management opinion might say that a group's effectiveness correlates highly with leadership, as researchers we cannot take this for granted. Hence, in the study of organization we must look for group criteria of effectiveness. We are sorry to say that we have not reached a satisfactory solution to this problem. Indeed, such a solution must perhaps await the development of quantitative standards of accomplishment. There is considerable effort in this direction, as is exemplified by the federal work measurement program and the general interest in performance budgeting. Perhaps the researcher a generation hence will have his criteria waiting for him.

The Forest Service Study

OUR FIRST and major study to date was conducted in the California Region of the United States Forest Service. Data were gathered from the eighteen National Forests by means of mail questionnaires, the return amounting to about ninety-five percent of those asked and able to answer. The criterion consisted of a rank order rating of the eighteen forests by eleven officials of the Regional Office at San Francisco. Statistical analysis of these ratings indicates that there is considerable consistency between the independent judgments of the several raters. The raters were instructed to rank on the basis of "how good a job an organization was doing in comparison with other organizations, taking into account the difficulties with which it was confronted."[5] Statistical analysis indicated that the ratings were consistent and reliable.

While eight different questionnaires were administered at all hierarchical levels in each Forest, most of the significant results were confined to the top levels—the responses of the persons immediately responsible to the Forest Supervisor. This points up two considerations relative to criteria: (1) a judgment rating of an organization is likely to be loaded with the rater's opinion of the head of the organization; (2) ratings should be secured for each of the several levels. In this case, separate ratings should have been secured for the Ranger Districts into which each Forest is divided.

The results tended to confirm the hypotheses relative to democratic consultative leadership which have been emerging in recent years. Thus, responses of the top line-staff personnel to questions about the Forest Supervisors indicated that Supervisors of the higher-rated Forests were also high on participation, social nearness, communication, empathy, and helpfulness. In answering questions about themselves, the supervisors of the higher rated forests indicated that they were critical of their superiors but not of their own subordinates. One dimension labelled "formalization" had to do with adhering to written policies and regulations. It proved significant at the District Ranger and technical staff levels, indicating that warmness in human relations is not necessarily associated with laxness in the protocol of hierarchy.

Questions on longevity indicated that the Forest Service is promoting its better young men to be Forest Supervisors and that the Supervisors of the higher-rated forests were decidedly in the younger group both as to age and length of time on present jobs. A dimension called "dissension" indicated that technical staff people thought that there existed more persistent antagonism among personnel in the lower-rated forests. Questions having to do with functional supervision reflected a belief on the part of functional supervisors that they were doing all right. But the District Rangers—who receive functional supervision—tended to say that such functional supervision was much more satisfactorily handled in the higher-rated forests than in the lower.

Curvilinearity

THE EIGHTEEN forests were divided, for purposes of analysis, into three groups of

[5] A. L. Comrey, J. M. Pfiffner, and H. P. Beem, *Studies in Organization Effectiveness. I. The U. S. Forest Survey* (Los Angeles: University of Southern California, mimeo., 1951), p. 9.

six each—high, medium, and low. Most previous studies in this area have used two groups, high and low. Our analysis on the basis of three has resulted in a phenomenon which is interesting and could be both startling and baffling if it persists in future studies. On some of these human relations dimensions the high and low tend to agree and differ from the middle. For instance, on the top-line staff questionnaire the Social Distance dimension revealed a score as follows: High = 1.5; middle = 4.0; and low = 3.4. This curvilinearity was not so marked in the Forest Service study as in the analysis of data from the Naval Air Station. Hence, further mention of it will be delayed until discussion of the latter study.

The Department of Employment Study

QUESTIONNAIRES of the same general type as those used in the Forest study were administered in the thirty offices of the California Department of Employment in the Los Angeles area. The offices were divided into four groups of high, medium high, medium low, and low on the basis of ratings of office effectiveness made by assistant area-managers. Statistical significance was achieved by only one dimension, "pride in work group."[6] However, the trends in other dimensions were similar to those in the Forest Service study, even though they were below the level of significance. Thus, it seemed justifiable to venture the opinion that office managers in the more highly rated offices were:

1. More democratic with their top assistants, allowing them greater participation in running the organization.
2. More likely to share information with their top subordinates.
3. More sympathetic in dealing with their top subordinates and their personal problems.
4. Less critical of their top subordinates and their work.
5. More willing and able to help top subordinates in their work.[7]

The Naval Ship Yard

QUESTIONNAIRES were administered to the supervisory hierarchy and a sample of journeymen at the Long Beach Naval Ship Yard. A tabulation of the responses was delivered to the ship yard management to be used for their own purposes. These questionnaires were not validated against a criterion, primarily because the original intention was to use the ship yard as a small-scale tryout for questionnaires to be used subsequently in a criterion study at a Naval Air Station. However, two analyses of the ship yard questionnaires had a basic research objective. They consisted of a factor analysis and an analysis of the differential belief systems of supervisors.

Factor Analysis.—The factor analysis is one of several procedures being used to purify and perfect our dimensions, and hence our questionnaires. The main objective of factor analysis is to ascertain whether different dimensions may be measuring the same thing. It is a statistical method which permits reducing the number of dimensions by taking advantage of their relationships. Its long-run objective is economy because it permits the use of shorter questionnaires. It also makes the contents of a questionnaire more intelligible, relates results to theory, and aids in theory construction.

One of the questionnaires administered to Journeymen at the Naval Ship Yard has already been factor analyzed. The questionnaire was composed of thirteen dimensions and seven meaningful factors were extracted. On the basis of these results, the best dimension for each factor is being revised to make the items more homogeneous and the poorer dimensions are being discarded. In future studies, it will be possible to cover the same amount of territory better and with fewer dimensions.

Differential Belief Systems.—It has been observed that higher supervisors tend to be more management minded than immediate supervisors. Indeed, the latter are

[6] This also proved significant in studies by the Michigan group. Daniel Katz, *et al.*, *Productivity, Supervision, and Morale in an Office Situation* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1950) Daniel Katz and others, *Productivity, Supervision, and Morale Among Railroad Workers* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1951).

[7] A fuller writeup will appear in a forthcoming issue of *Personnel Psychology*.

said often to be in a position where they must seem to side with both workers and management.[8] The responses of some 300 supervisors at Long Beach were analyzed to test the hypothesis that higher supervisors are more management minded. The results tended to confirm the hypothesis. Lower supervisors were more conscious of group and team factors. Higher supervisors had a more favorable attitude toward paper work and record keeping. Higher supervisors indicated a tougher and more direct attitude toward dealing with disciplinary problems. Higher supervisors were more critical of workers on the production level. Higher supervisors felt more secure in being backed up by management; their decisions would be allowed to stand and they would not be short-circuited by their superiors. Higher supervisors are more receptive to ideas from above, have more initiative and self-reliance, and possess a greater sense of belonging to the management team.

Naval Air Station

THE STUDY in the Overhaul and Repair Department of the San Diego Naval Air Station was a collaborative venture between management personnel at the station and the research staff at the University of Southern California. The questionnaires prepared by the U.S.C. group and used in the ship yard study mentioned above were revised by the Naval Air Station staff. The latter then administered them to some 5500 personnel in the Overhaul and Repair Department. The station staff had the data punched on cards and prepared a tabulation which was used by management as an attitude survey.

The U.S.C. staff had previously visited the station several times in the hope of finding criteria against which to validate our hypotheses. About 1950-1951 a punch-card time-keeping system was installed which permitted the allocation of man hours to specific operations. Time standards were established in some of the shops. These were not engineered standards but were based upon experience. There were mixed reactions as to their validity and some of the shops refused to install them at all. Nevertheless, the NAS staff requested the U.S.C. group to conduct a validity analysis of the questionnaires mentioned above against a criterion which they furnished. Thirty-three of the basic productive shops were grouped into three categories—high, medium, and low—on the basis of a work measurement criterion slightly modified by the judgment of foremen. A preliminary analysis was conducted of the questionnaires filled out by journeymen and further processing of the data is planned. This preliminary analysis yielded six significant dimensions out of thirteen. The six consist of three human relations dimensions and three in the area of leadership. The former are: (1) helpfulness, (2) sympathy, and (3) nonhypercritical attitudes toward subordinates. The latter are: (4) good judgment, (5) consistency, and (6) self-reliance.

Here again, we have confirmation of the essential direction taken by all known research in supervisory behavior, notably those by the Michigan group and in our Forest Service and Department of Employment studies. This is to the effect that a humane, people-centered, and group-centered approach to supervision pays off in superior effectiveness. But there is a fly in the ointment. Such behavior seems to be just as characteristic of the low group as of the high. In other words, our old friend "curvilinearity" has returned in an even more perplexing form, because it was present in each of the six significant dimensions. We hope to probe this curvilinearity by further analysis, specifically to see whether a painstaking item analysis will iron it out. If it then still persists, future studies to ascertain its nature will be in order. Some members of our staff have already hypothesized that although both high and low supervisors are rated as having good human relations, the content differs from one to the other. If this is so, a whole new vista for future research is opened.

Critical Incident Survey

BECAUSE significant results in the first Forest Service Study were confined to the top

[8] Fritz J. Roethlisberger, "The Foreman: Master and Victim of Double Talk," *Harvard Business Review*, Spring, 1945, pp. 283-98.

of the hierarchy, some plans have been made for a second survey at the ranger district level. In the summer of 1952, some 450 critical incidents were collected from California forests, about two-thirds by interview and about one-third by mail. These incidents were intended merely to be used for the purpose of suggesting hypotheses for dimensions and items. They were not to be used to establish critical job requirements by means of the rigorous analyses postulated by Flanagan.[9] Preliminary analysis of these incidents indicates that the questionnaires used in a study of ranger districts should contain items in the following areas: public relations, planning, group and social factors, organizing, management controls, and courage in interpersonal relationships demanding firmness. The outstanding feature of these incidents was the importance of public relations and planning in the Ranger's job. About one-fifth of the incidents fell in each of these categories.

Our Mission

The long-run objective is to produce an instrument which will distinguish between effective and ineffective organizations. Our future work will consist of careful analysis of the items in our dimensions to see that they hang together. They will be purified by item analysis and factor analysis, following which they will be tested in other organizations. New dimensions will be developed and tried out. Time must be devoted to the criterion question, which is far from being solved. Efforts will be made to find organizations having measured production for sub-groups. When we gain increasing confidence in our dimensions we may conduct special studies to test various types of criteria. For instance, various persons have suggested that organizations could be grouped or ranked on the basis of absence, accident rate, complaints by customers or clients, performance rating of supervisors, and number of grievances appealed. Having once validated our dimensions against productivity standards, it would be possible to cross-validate them against the above criteria. This might be a step toward solving the criterion problem in public administration where production standards are so difficult to locate.

Study of Structure

Most research in organization, including our own, has been directed toward the small supervisory group. This may be justified on the basis that the individual and the job constitute the atoms of organization; the intimate work groups the molecules. Nevertheless, the traditional writings in public administration and industrial management have been concerned with the organization as a whole. They have studied hierarchy, emphasizing structure and procedures. Without prejudging the merits of one approach or the other, we believe that some attempt should be made to study the structural, formalization, and procedural aspects of hierarchy empirically. The hypothesis to be tested is: other factors being controlled, the more effective organizations are those which are better structured, have an optimum of formalization, and are well "tooled up" procedurally.

The research design and working plan for such a study is obviously not easy to devise. It requires a great deal of preliminary "skull work." A seminar composed of second and third-year graduate students has been struggling with the problem and has prepared a questionnaire for gathering data. The proposal is to study a sample of perhaps a hundred organizations which will be graded into better and poorer groups on the basis of criteria as yet to be determined. The data will be analyzed to ascertain the differences between the more and less effective organizations. Some tryout interviews have been conducted by students in both business corporations and hospitals. Thus far we have quickened our own perceptions but have nothing to report in the way of findings justified by data. Our confidence that this type of research is both feasible and essential has been re-enforced, and we hope that time and resources will be available to carry through, even though several years may be required.

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[9] John C. Flanagan, "Principles and Procedures in Evaluating Performance," *Personnel*, XXVIII (March, 1952), pp. 373-86.

Import For Personnel Management

WHILE the projects of the Office of Naval Research in this area are directed primarily at basic research, there are a few observations which should have some immediate usefulness to applied personnel management. First, the democratic concept of the consultative, communicative, and helpful supervisor, postulated in the Michigan studies, has been confirmed. This should give training people additional confidence to include the new research findings in their supervisory development programs. Second, some caution about going overboard on this score is indicated by our "curvilinear" results. In other words, being a good supervisor requires something more than being humane, considerate, and communicative. Third, a training program can start out with the assumption that lower supervisors are less likely to be management minded than higher supervisors. Fourth, any agency with a variety and volume of public contacts should emphasize training in public relations. Fifth, good human relations does not require flouting the orthodox credos of organization and management, the two perhaps being complementary rather than antithetical.

A Further Inquiry into the Group Oral . . . . ANTHONY ZILL

Recently the Los Angeles County Civil Service Commission used the group oral test as part of an examination for Deputy Probation Officer and incorporated several new features: (1) An appraisal of each candidate by other members of his group was included in the final rating; (2) Following the examination, candidates were permitted to view a statement describing the procedure and its objectives as well as a copy of the detailed rating form; and (3) Candidates were informed that they could object in writing to all or any part of the procedure which they considered inappropriate or inequitable. Because of its interest and possible informational value to other agencies, this article will describe in some detail the procedure followed and the observations made and attempt to explain or analyze some of the results.

Eligibility Requirements

The examination for Deputy Probation Officer was open to both men and women. The bulletin requirements were as follows:

> Graduation from an accredited college. At least 6 months' experience in probation or parole work OR at least one years' experience as a counselor or group supervisor in a correctional program for boys and girls OR at least 2 years' recent social case work or group work experience in a recognized social work agency OR completion of a one-year graduate curriculum in social work, psychology, or sociology.

The examination itself, consisted of two parts, a written test and a group oral. The written test questioned candidates regarding their general knowledge of the work of a Probation Officer. A score of at least 70 percent was required in order to be eligible for the group oral phase of the examination. Ninety-nine candidates took the written test and sixty-seven passed.

• Anthony Zill is a Personnel Technician with the Los Angeles County Civil Service Commission.

How Group Oral Was Conducted

For purposes of the oral examination, those who passed were divided into eight groups, composed of eight or nine members. Five of the groups were restricted to men and three to women. The same chairman was used throughout. The suggestion was subsequently made that a more realistic appraisal would result if mixed groups, consisting of both men and women, were employed. Since separate eligible lists were established for each sex, the proposal was not feasible in this instance. Where an eligible list is not restricted as to sex, however, mixed groups might normally be employed. To what extent the number of men and women should be equalized to avoid any possible bias, can only be established by actual experience.

In assigning candidates to particular groups, certain safeguards were employed in order to insure, insofar as possible, that candidates would not be acquainted with each other, and that no group differed markedly from others in the experience background of its members. On the basis of information available in application forms, an attempt was made to group individuals from widely scattered parts of the recruitment area. Considering the size of Los Angeles County, this was a relatively simple matter. Members of each group were then further examined with respect to place of current employment and appropriate reallocations made. Here again, although it was not always possible to insure that no two candidates in a particular group were employed by the same agency or concern, an attempt was made to minimize the extent of such relatedness.

Before entering the room set aside for discussion, candidates were asked to prepare name plates by printing their names on 5" x 8" white cards folded in the form of an inverted "V." Distribution was next made of the mimeographed material. (See pp. 60-62.) This material consisted of a

brief description of the procedure to be followed, a case history of an 18-year-old delinquent, and the two topics which were to be discussed. Candidates were then instructed to report to the conference room where they were seated in a circle with the chairman, who sat at one end. No intervening table was used in the circular seating arrangement so that examiners had a full view of each candidate at all times. Recording microphones were placed on the floor in the circle. Finally, in order to promote relaxation, smoking was permitted.

After candidates were seated, the chairman introduced herself and told them they could study the printed material. During this period examiners completed seating charts and independently rated candidates on Appearance. Such distracting characteristics as physical disabilities and unusual behavioral mannerisms were also noted.

When the oral test was planned, it was agreed that the technique would probably be most productive if group cohesion and unity were quickly established and maintained. This objective was sought in several ways.

Selection of Chairman.—In order to lessen any preliminary tension, embarrassment, or strain on the part of candidates which might impede cementing of the group into a whole, care was exercised in selecting a chairman. The County was able to enlist the participation of a person not only technically qualified in the field of probation but with a demonstrable ability to quickly and easily put a group at ease. In actual practice, however, the chairman's participation in the proceedings proved so limited and routine as to make possession of outstanding qualifications on her part unnecessary.

Chairman Not a Rater. Candidates were informed that the chairman would not rate. It was hoped that this procedure would weaken the tendency of candidates to direct their remarks to the chairman since, logically at least, they would derive no advantage from doing so.

Participation of Chairman. The chairman was instructed to do as little talking as possible and to generally minimize her tangible contribution to the proceedings. Not only should she avoid presenting her own ideas; she also should refrain from indicating approval or disapproval of anything said or done by candidates. Immediately prior to the discussion, the chairman also requested candidates to speak as opportunity arose and not to look to her for permission to speak. She also asked candidates to address their remarks to other members of the group and to ignore her as much as possible. The chairman's role was seen as that of a catalyst whose primary function was to induce maximum contribution on the part of the candidates. Surprisingly enough, and contrary to early fears, the chairman's role proved relatively inactive. Candidates talked to each other for the most part and ignored the chairman.

Role of Examiners. The distraction effect of the three examiners who did the rating was minimized by not introducing them to the candidates and by having them sit at a distance from the circle. In practice, candidates actually never directed their remarks to the raters and appeared to ignore them throughout the proceedings.

Handling of Lulls in Discussion. It was thought that protracted lulls or silences would have an adverse effect on group unity and discussion. When a lull appeared to be developing, the chairman was instructed to arbitrarily call on a candidate to comment on a specific point raised by the last person to speak. This instruction proved needless. For example, in order to see what would happen, the chairman was previously instructed to take no action when a lull began to develop in one group. Actually the pause was soon broken and subsequent discussion appeared not to be adversely affected in any way. It should be mentioned that in all cases, discussion was still going strong at the end of the forty-five minutes allowed, and protracted pauses in discussion were relatively few. The suggestion was made subsequently that individual candidates be observed for marked evidences of anxiety during lulls in the discussion and that such evidences be evaluated in terms of personal insecurity reflected. This idea might well merit further investigation.

Some further comment regarding the role of the chairman is appropriate at this point. In original planning the chairman had been assigned several other specific functions, namely:

1. To arbitrarily call on those candidates who were not participating in the discussion for comment. On the basis of our experience, this instruction should be dropped. Candidates who were called on for comment were few and usually made a relatively poor showing.

2. To initiate discussion of the second topic when the group had apparently exhausted the first or expressed a desire to go on to the next. This practice proved useful.

3. To prevent any person from monopolizing the discussion. This precaution proved unnecessary, but the instruction should be retained as a general safeguard. It also appears desirable to instruct the chairman to prevent any candidate from coercing the group in any way so that the discussion or the unity of the group may not be adversely affected. For example, in one instance, a candidate tried to impose her leadership on the group when it was obvious the group had not given consent. This candidate at an early stage in the discussion stated "I think we have exhausted the first topic and are ready to go on to the next." The chairman at this point instead of acquiescing in this decision, asked the group whether they had any further comment to make. They had, and the discussion proceeded apace. It is interesting to note that this candidate was rejected by the rest of the group in its formal rating at the close of the discussion.

During the forty-five minute discussion period, examiners were observing candidates and making notes on specially prepared rating forms.

Candidates Rate Each Other

After the chairman terminated the discussion, she distributed forms to be completed by the candidates. The instructions on the latter rating form read as follows:

> Assume you are working as a Deputy Probation Officer. Your supervisor assigns you a difficult job and asks you to select the 3 most promising people from this group as assistants. Give your reason for selecting each person.

When completed, these forms were signed by the candidates and individually collected by the chairman.

While candidates were working on rating forms, examiners were preparing their ratings.[1] All ratings were completed before candidates were thanked and dismissed. This appeared to be desirable in order to eliminate errors due to faulty recall. Actually examiners had no difficulty in completing their ratings in the 10-15 minutes allotted.

Behaviour during the rating period was also observed. Some candidates for example took a relatively long time in rating their colleagues. Others wanted to leave the room immediately after completing their ratings. Although no instruction was given, almost all candidates made some effort to conceal their ratings from other candidates. In all cases candidates took these appraisals seriously.

The primary reason why ratings by candidates of each other were incorporated into our procedure was the conviction that such ratings would reflect an important and different point of view. Actually, all examiners agreed that candidates tended to evaluate and react to each other primarily in nonintellectual terms. Apparently, personality was more important than intellect. There appeared to be some evidence that individuals characterized by rigidity were attracted to persons of similar personality makeup. At first the reason for this was not apparent. A likely explanation, however, is that attraction to a more secure outgoing person is avoided because it would tend to make the rigid person feel even more insecure. Since this reaction appears to be unconscious, the ex-

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[1] The success of our first experience with the group oral was due in large measure to the participation and contributions of the special examiners: Harold Butterfield, Chief Probation Officer for Riverside County; Mona Eagle, Chairman of the Los Angeles County Probation Committee; John Milner, Assistant Professor Social Work, University of Southern California; Heman Stark, Director of the California Youth Authority; and Gertrude Hengerer, Probation Research Analyst, Los Angeles County Probation Department. Miss Hengerer acted as group chairman.

aminer can find supporting evidence for his own judgment in such cases by examining ratings prepared by candidates.

Candidates whose names were listed by at least four members of the group were credited with an additional 10 points. These points were added to the average of the three examiners' ratings. Some candidates were rejected by the group in the sense that they received no mention or only one mention by the members of the group. The possibility of penalizing such individuals by subtracting points from ratings of examiners should be considered. Such rejection probably reflects, in part, serious personality deficiencies which would adversely affect performance in a position which requires constant dealing with people on intimate terms. Unfortunately we can only tentatively generalize as to the personality structures of the 3 or 4 people, out of approximately 67 candidates, who were completely rejected by their groups. These few individuals appeared to be generally lacking in warmth and personality attractiveness. Extent of contribution did not appear to be a factor, for some of these people participated freely.

Comparison of Examiner and Candidate Ratings

How DID candidates' ratings compare with those of examiners? Generally, there was greater agreement with regard to extremes than with regard to average candidates. However, discrepancies were relatively numerous and in some instances marked. Some candidates who were rated by examiners as above average were rejected by the group and vice versa. Due to pressure of time and running behind schedule, not enough on-the-spot analysis and discussion of these differences was possible. As had been hoped, apparently two different points of view were in operation. In the next trial of this technique an attempt will be made to discuss more fully discrepancies in ratings immediately after the group is dismissed.

Review of Rating Forms by Candidates

IT HAS been noted that candidates were permitted to examine rating forms and numerical standards as well as a description of the technique for the five-day period immediately following this phase of the examination. During this period, candidates were allowed to object in writing to all or any part of the procedure. Several candidates took advantage of the opportunity to view these papers, but no objection was received. It should perhaps be mentioned that the civil service rules of Los Angeles County provide that a candidate may appeal his rating after he is notified of his standing. Of the 67 candidates examined, only one appealed his rating. This candidate had received a failing rating from all three examiners and in addition had been rejected by his group in that no member had selected him as a person with whom he would like to work. The lack of unfavorable reaction and protests would seem to indicate that candidates felt the oral test procedure was basically equitable.

Summary

ON THE basis of our experience, certain tentative generalizations regarding the merits of the group technique are offered. In many respects our findings support those already reported by other agencies. Generally, the procedure appears to be superior to the conventional interview. It results in economies in over-all time expended on all candidates, and yet permits each candidate to be observed at considerable length. A more complete personality picture of the candidate is also provided. The time allotted to the individual interview is normally so limited, especially when large numbers of candidates are involved, that any slight deviation in response or behaviour may be magnified out of proportion to its real importance in order that successive candidates may be differentiated. This tendency is less likely to operate in the group situation.

In the interview, a panel of examiners evaluates personal suitability on the basis of observation of a particular candidate. Our procedure permits us to supplement this appraisal with the recorded reaction of the group to its members. Thus, the individual is seen from two important, complementary points of view. A group set-

ting, too, appears to constitute a more normal and fruitful means for obtaining information regarding social behaviour. It also facilitates simultaneous comparison of a substantial number of persons. In the conventional situation, where one candidate is interviewed at a time, relative comparison is much more difficult due to intervention of extraneous factors not readily controlled. One such factor is the active interplay between examiner and examinee which may create a mood or situation not duplicated in previous or subsequent interviews. Where large numbers of candidates are involved, examiner fatigue may also have a marked effect on the interview situation. It will not be denied that the fifteenth candidate interviewed faces a somewhat different board of examiners than the first. Frequently, examiners who have interviewed a group of candidates individually not only find it difficult to rank such candidates in order of estimated suitability; they may even fail to recall some of them.

From the standpoint of dynamics, the group situation appears to possess other important advantages. We find, as have other agencies, that it involves relatively less personal strain for the candidate because it eliminates the "fish bowl" condition characteristic of the normal interview. Not only is the intensity of focus on a particular candidate lessened but a more permissive, less authoritarian atmosphere prevails. No direct questions are asked, no immediate response required. The inferiority of the candidate and the Olympian power of the board are not constantly directly or indirectly emphasized.

It has sometimes been maintained that exposing a candidate to a certain amount of stress during an interview is desirable. However, since the individual in most cases does not work under comparable stress on the job and since the interview serves as a basis for estimating how he will function on the job, the value of a "stress condition" appears questionable. The examiner too, finds the group situation much less fatiguing. By eliminating the need for direct participation in the process, he is able to concentrate on the tasks of observing and rating. The situation, not too infrequent, where the examiner does most of the talking or answers questions for the candidate, becomes a thing of the past. The group oral procedure also minimizes biases which operate in the usual interview in that examiners are often consciously or unconsciously influenced by background knowledge regarding the candidate. Employment and school data, for example, may "set" the examiner and influence his receptivity to the candidate as well as the final rating. In our particular situation, such information was not available to examiners, and candidates were judged solely on their behaviour in the group. Several of the special examiners who participated in our experiment later admitted that they originally had doubts as to the technique's utility. Some were especially concerned about the nonavailability of the usual background information. After the tryout all of them conceded the relative superiority of the technique and stated that absence of background information not only was not a handicap in rating; it made the procedure more equitable by putting all candidates on the same footing.

The eight groups observed evidenced a variety of behaviour, not all of which was evaluated because its meaning was not clear. On the supposition that all atypical behaviour in this type of situation reflects some aspect of personality, it is evident that the dynamics of this procedure need to be more intensively explored. Consideration is being given to the possibility of enlisting the cooperation of outside experts to analyze our findings so that raters may better understand what they observe. In addition, there are two other related questions still to be more fully investigated. Why do the viewpoints of candidates and examiners differ so widely in some instances? What are the objective behavioural evidences of personal insecurity in this type of situation?

Compared with the group procedure, the individual interview appears to be a relatively static, synthetic, and lifeless device. On the basis of our experience it is hoped that other agencies will more closely examine this technique in order that it may be more fully understood and its wider acceptance expedited.

APPENDIX

A. Mimeographed instructions and case history distributed to candidates.
B. Rating form employed by examiners.

Exhibit A

LOS ANGELES COUNTY CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

Examination for Deputy Probation Officer

GROUP PERFORMANCE TEST OF PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS TO CANDIDATES: You will be given 20 minutes to study the following material. Use the reverse side of the page to make notes. At the close of the allotted time the group will be asked by the chairman to discuss the following problems:

1. What are the possible contributing factors in John's delinquency?
2. What weaknesses in probation supervision are revealed by the record and how could the probation officer's handling of John's case have been improved?

You are not expected to be familiar with the technical aspects of probation work. Discuss these problems from a common sense standpoint. The members of the group should examine the various considerations in order, and in each case should first try to reach some general agreement as to what is meant by each major topic. When the group feels that the first topic has been exhausted, members should proceed to the second. The Chairman assigned to the group will not rate candidates. He will participate in the discussion primarily to insure that every candidate who so desires is given an equal opportunity to speak. The discussion will be recorded.

Your rating will be based on several factors among which is your contribution to the discussion. You may, of course, refer to your notes but it is not expected that you will do any extended reading therefrom.

Total time allotted for discussion will be 45 minutes.

Case History

On December 2, 1950, when John was 18, he was arrested for breaking into a Super-Market. He was subsequently tried, convicted, and placed on probation. Prior to probation John had been a problem in the community since his seventeenth birthday. He was frequently truant from school and considered a general nuisance by school authorities. John is an only child. The father, who was 21 when John was born, was known as a bootlegger and gambler. When John was 1 year old he disappeared. His present whereabouts are unknown.

Until he was 17 John lived with his maternal grandparents His mother also lived in the home until she obtained a divorce and remarried. John was 15 at the time. The mother worked constantly outside the home and most of John's upbringing was left to her parents. There was constant conflict between John's mother and grandparents over money matters. In addition the maternal aunts and uncles resented the attention their parents were showing John. There is considerable evidence that the grandparents over-indulged John and were lax in discipline. John was particularly close with one of the uncles in the grandparents home and associated with him a great deal. This uncle was later convicted of rape and armed robbery and sentenced to state prison. When John's mother remarried, she wanted to take John into her new home. However the grandparents insisted on keeping him. During the two years before John moved into his stepfather's home, the grandparents apparently did everything possible to fill John's mind with prejudices and hatred toward the stepfather. Early in 1950 John moved into his stepfather's home. The latter has previously been married and divorced and had 2 children by his first marriage. The older of these two children was 17, the same age as John. The stepbrother was an excellent student and his father's pride and joy. There developed an intense rivalry between John and the stepbrother for attention and recognition. To complicate matters still further, the stepfather was a somewhat strict disciplinarian.

John first received failing school marks in the 11th grade. This was several months after he went to live with his stepfather. It was at this time that, in his own words, "he broke the school record for truancy." Soon afterwards he ran away from home and subsequently did not return to school. The records show that John had an IQ of 95 and that while in school received good marks in woodshop and mechanical trades. During childhood John had cholera, mumps, measles and chickenpox in fairly rapid succession. However, John developed into a healthy, robust

child. John is nearsighted and wears thick glasses. From the standpoint of leisure time activities, John was interested in most sports, primarily football. His hobbies were woodworking and cartooning. He was an avid reader of comic books and adventure magazines. In general John did not spend his spare time constructively. He kept poor associates, stayed out late nights and drank occasionally.

From the standpoint of personality John was an emotionally unstable youth who showed resentment toward law and authority. He displayed poor judgment and lacked insight into his personality problems. He was impulsive and lacked self-control. On the positive side, John possessed average intelligence. He showed a sense of loyalty and affection toward his mother and his relatives. He referred to his grandfather as "father" and called his aunts and uncles "brothers and sisters."

RECORD OF SUPERVISION

The following reports summarize the probation officer's contacts with John and other individuals directly or indirectly concerned with his rehabilitation.

12-3-50—Talked at length with John's mother concerning his probation. She mentioned that she and her second husband are separated but there is a possibility of a reconciliation. PO discussed with the mother some of the significant causes of John's past delinquency. It was suggested that her son be shown considerably more understanding and affection than was formerly the case. Otherwise John is likely to go back to antisocial conduct as a way of getting recognition. It was stressed that John must be made to feel that he is definitely wanted in the home. Also, if there is to be improvement in John's conduct, discipline will have to be administered in a more intelligent, orderly, and reasonable manner. The mother feels that she must continue to work outside the home but said that she realizes that she must change some of her ways if she is to help her son.

In the course of the discussion the mother related other incidents in John's childhood. John was enrolled in school when six. This delayed enrollment was due to a broken leg suffered in a fall from a platform. When John finally entered school, he wept furiously the first day and had to be sent home. A month elapsed before he was completely reconciled to school.

When John was 10, he stole some pencils from a neighborhood dime store. The mother went to the store and paid for them.

1-20-51—The mother notes improvement in John's attitude as he seems to be more mature, responsible, and considerate of others. During the course of conversation PO again reviewed some of the causative factors in John's former delinquent behavior. It was pointed out how the involved family differences detrimentally affected John's adjustment, that John will have a very difficult time to readjust to society, and will need all possible help, including family unity and harmony. Later PO talked with John who was not at home when PO first called. He displayed a friendly, cooperative attitude. He said he was working for the Meadow Dairy Company and mentioned that his employer knew of his probation status.

2-10-51—Called at Meadow Dairy and talked to the manager who said John is doing well and is liked by the other employees. He is now doing general labor work and earns approximately $35 a week. The manager said that he would let us know if John's work adjustment should become unsatisfactory.

Visited the home and interviewed John and his mother. John has undergone treatments for hemorrhoids. His mother is paying for the treatments which will cost about $125. John likes his job although at times he has to do heavy lifting which aggravates the hemorrhoid condition.

The mother told PO that she is planning on reuniting with her estranged husband. She remarked that she will make it plain to him that "unjust treatment of her son will not be tolerated."

PO discussed with John the possibility of the stepfather living in the home and urged him not to be prejudiced because of past experiences. John said that he would be as fair and understanding of his stepfather as he possibly can. PO encouraged John to consult with him at any time that he has problems or difficulties which are causing him worry and anxiety. John indicated that several days ago he went to the YMCA and that he would like to join the "Y" and possibly live there. He learned that there is a long waiting list for rooms and intimated that he would appreciate PO's help in getting him into the "Y."

3-12-51—John came to the probation office and said that he has decided against moving to the YMCA at least for the time being. He appears to have gained quite a little insight into his personality and difficulties; also sincerely seems to want to make a good adjustment. John hopes someday to obtain a job where there is a possibility of learning a trade.

4-12-51—PO called but found no one at home. He talked with the next door neighbor. According to the neighbor John was "doing satisfactorily."

5-23-51—Called at home and talked with John who revealed that he is now working for the Central Tool Company. He is doing inspection and delivery work and has been promised the opportunity of later apprenticing as a tool and die man. John said that his mother and stepfather are again living together and conditions at home are very upsetting. He remarked: "I just can't get along with my stepfather." PO suggested to John that he try to get a room at the YMCA and said that he would go there personally and recommend him. John is now earning enough money to support himself and be financially independent of his relatives. It was pointed out to John that moving from his mother's home need not lead to an entire break in their relationship. However by living outside the home he can avoid the constant bickering which is taking place between his mother and stepfather.

Visited the resident secretary at the YMCA and gave him a brief history of John and his family problems. The secretary stated that he would make arrangements for John to room at the YMCA.

6-23-51—John came to the probation office and informed the PO that he has moved to the YMCA. He likes living there, has met several fellows his own age and is taking advantage of the recreational and social facilities. For spare time activities John works out in the gym and swims. The "Y" sponsors some dances and coeducational activities and John is participating in these whenever he can.

John likes his job at the Central Tool Company and is looking forward to being assigned a tool and die apprenticeship, an assignment promised him as soon as he becomes more familiar with the work.

7-9-51—Visited John at the "Y" and he seems to be continuing to make a satisfactory adjustment. John sees his mother on Sundays when he goes with her to the grandparents' for dinner. She is still living with her second husband but is planning a divorce. John revealed that he visits his maternal uncle who is in the state prison. Whenever he goes he is accompanied by relatives.

8-9-51—Visited John at his room in the "Y." John proudly told PO that he is now working as a tool and die apprentice at the Central Tool Company. He has started to buy some of the necessary tools and gauges. He reported that his employer has given him important jobs to do and complimented him on his work.

9-15-51—John continues to work on the afternoon shift at the Central Tool Company. He has now bought a full set of tools which cost more than $100. John remarked that some day he hopes to complete high school by attending night school.

10-10-51—John revealed that his mother has instituted divorce proceedings and is no longer living with her husband.

11-12-51—Talked with John at the "Y." He is working regularly at the same job and apparently is confronted with no new or unusual problems.

Later talked with the resident secretary of the "Y." He revealed that John has made an excellent adjustment at the "Y" and has participated in various activities.

12-1-51—John is again living with his mother.

EXHIBIT B

LOS ANGELES COUNTY CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

Examination for Deputy Probation Officer

GROUP PERFORMANCE TEST OF PERSONAL EFFECTIVENESS
APPRAISAL RECORD

NAME ____ DATE ____________

1. ABILITY TO DEAL WITH PEOPLE

Timid; lacks confidence; overly aggressive; sarcastic; inconsiderate; characterized by odd mannerisms; generally acceptable; poised; mature; pleasant; outgoing; personality characterized by warmth; is accepted as a leader by the group.

2. ALERTNESS

Slow thinking; limited awareness of relationship between facts; draws unsound or erroneous conclusions from data; statements lack depth or reflect superficial understanding; generally acceptable; quick relevant response; evidence of considerable ability to relate facts and draw significant conclusions therefrom.

3. APPEARANCE

Inappropriate dress; physical handicap; generally clean and neatly dressed; somewhat untidy.

4. VOICE AND SPEECH

Is generally hard to understand; poor grammar; sparse vocabulary; acceptable use of language; presents ideas very clearly; good diction; extensive vocabulary properly used.

5. EXTENT OF CONTRIBUTION TO DISCUSSION

Very limited; some contribution; noticeable contribution; major contribution.

6. SOCIAL ATTITUDES

Evidence of harmful attitudes; no harmful attitudes revealed; evidence of sound desirable attitudes.

REMARKS: ____

I. An overall consideration and evaluation of the above ratings in terms of the requirements of the position for which the candidate is being examined, indicates that the candidate will probably

1. perform inadequately ____________
2. be handicapped in one or more respects ____________
3. do a satisfactory job ____________
4. do a good job ____________
5. do an outstanding job ____________

II. Candidate received top 3 ranking by ________ out of ________ members of the group.

Signature ______________________________

Score ________ + ________ = ________

The Process of Orientation . ARTHUR A. ATKISSON, JR.

PUBLIC agencies have been struck with an epidemic of orientation programs. Each new employee has been credited with a whole series of emotions and environmental kinks which must be treated by "orientation" before he can successfully assume his rightful position in the organization.

In an exploration of typical employee training needs, one recent author in this publication remarked that "there is always a need for more effective orientation of new employees."

However, the treatment usually prescribed to meet this alleged need is a full-blown Rodgers & Hammerstein production. With a backdrop of colorful charts, elaborate handbooks and extensive exhibits, the new employee is led through a labyrinth of top executive lectures, "stimulating" roundtable discussions, and "enlightening" motion pictures.

At the conclusion of three or four such "information-packed" days, the new employee is given a slap on the back, a hearty "God Speed!" from the Training Staff and turned forth on the organization. The assumption borne by the Training Staff, of course, is that the new employee—after being barraged with the facts and figures surrounding the existence of his agency—is now adequately adjusted to his new work environment.

After the operation of such a program for only a short while, rumblings will soon be heard from among the employee ranks. Oldtimers will request that they too be permitted to attend the outstanding program they've heard so much about. New employees will contentedly reflect on their associations with Mr. So and So, Director of Such and Such, during their participation in the program.

But what is wrong with all this? Laboring under strong feelings of guilt myself, it is difficult to fashion a priority listing.

Certainly, however, one conclusion is evident—that where we have fashioned orientation programs resembling the type facetiously described above, we have confused the *fringe benefits* of orientation with its basic purpose and use.

Attention Is the Key

TRUE it may be, that employees will look favorably on the existence of such programs. However, as will be recalled from the now famous experiments at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric, production increases may also be realized by deliberately fluctuating the strength of plant illumination. But this does not imply that "light-flickering" programs should be established by scientifically inclined managers. Rather, it means simply that workers will react positively to *attention from management* and their supervisors. It makes them feel important. It makes them feel like valuable human beings instead of cogs in a God-like production process.

Indeed, there is ample evidence that the expression of management's interest in the employee may more effectively be exercised at the working level—by the supervisor—and not merely in a crowded conference room by a Training Officer.

Start at the Work Group Level

THE WAYS in which an individual's relationship with a work group can determine his actions were amply demonstrated during the war.

During the winter of 1943-44 Air Force psychologists took a close look at the flyer under combat conditions. Stuart Chase has described the results of that investigation:

> The relationship with the *group* was fundamental in the combat zone. Indeed, a kind of hierarchy of groups was identified. First, the flyer valued the *crew* of his own bomber; they were closest and best. Then the squadron with which one's plane fought; then the group of *four squadrons* under a full colonel; then the

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wing under a brigadier general; then the *Air Force*—the 9th or the 15th, or whatever. All these outfits produced strong comradely feelings. The feeling for the U. S. Army was less strong, for the Allied armies still less so. Loyalty to the peoples of the United Nations was barely measurable.

If a boy would identify himself with his immediate face-to-face group, crew, squadron, wing—the record showed he was a much better fighter than if his loyalty was idealogical, expressed in such slogans as "fighting for freedom," or fighting a "war for democracy." People meant much more to the fighters than ideas. . .

There we have it. The group to which one belongs has a direct influence on individual action. The closer the group, the greater the influence. Hence, we may probably conclude that the best result of Orientation programs will flow from introduction and adjustment or orientation to the immediate work group.

This, because the process of orientation involves an assimilation of the individual into *group activity* (which may be new or strange to him), and his adjustment to the peculiar obligations or requirements of membership in that group. This adjustment is an entirely personal process and involves relating one's self to the ideals or principles inherent in the group and understanding the ways in which the components of that group environment may, or do affect us.

Recognize Individual Attitudes

The crucial problem of orientation is that of effectively introducing the new employee into a strange group and revolves around the conceptual framework governing the actions of that individual. For it is typical that men approach their problems or engage in their activities within the framework of certain concepts or attitudes. These are, in turn, a part of man as a result of his background, experience, or simply environment. It is the way we constantly strive to keep on "known" ground. Whether the individual's conceptual framework is in fact true or false is not material. It *is*. It has being. It exists. The individual has adjusted himself to it. It is part of him, as much as his mental abilities or skin color.

One function of organized orientation is to assist in the modification or extension of an individual's attitudes (conceptual framework) to the requirements of his job, his work group, and his agency.

However, before one can orient or adjust himself to anything, he must first recognize it. He must determine what its relationship is to him and what possible effect it can have upon him.

Supply Information

If history records any truth, it is that the human race has always some way feared the unknown. *Knowing* has been the great drive of mankind. Modern literature on communications between management and employees adds weight to such an hypothesis. Workers want to *know*. Who was promoted to Foreman? Who's the new clerk to the super? Who got a new car? Whether or not the event has any direct bearing upon them does not seem to be so pertinent. They just want to know.

And so *knowing* or *identifying* the elements of our environment is also a part of personal orientation.

We are prone to identify (correctly or incorrectly) the things and activities that surround us. "What is this?" we ask. "How does it affect me? What can I do about it? How should I act toward it?"

In short, we determine and justify our actions as a result of the ways in which we interpret our environment. One compelling norm of group activity is the individual's drive to conform. To act "correctly" is to win social approval.

The organized orientation process should thus be directed toward identifying the various elements of the employee's new work environment. These elements include the entire gamut of policies and regulations which govern his conduct on the job, establish the requirements of his position, and define his opportunities for promotions and other perquisites, such as retirement and leave. Knowledge of these factors contributes to the employee's own feeling of security. As one author has said, "Knowledge is power primarily because it

decreases dependence upon the unknown and unpredictable."

The Place of Over-all Orientation

THE PROPER role of *orientation beyond the work level* is to present those "unknown" quantities in employment which usually can be learned only after prolonged experience in the agency. Its role should be to complement and not supplant the role of the supervisor in the orientation process. As observed above, such orientation will contribute little to assimilation of the new employee into his basic work group. However, it may be used effectively to achieve such objectives as the development of employee attitudes toward the agency's basic program.

These, then, are the practical elements involved in orientation.

Some of them probably appear to involve more than just the new employee. That is entirely true, because the new employee is merely representative of a type that needs orientation. A man who is transferred to another department, or promoted, or finds himself under a new supervisor is also subject to the process of orientation.

The word itself has no meaning except as related to the individual and his environment. As his environment changes, or appears to change, so also does the individual react to that change—a change which may properly be dubbed "orientation."

To avoid confusion, we should recognize at this point that orientation does not necessarily refer to a formally organized and agency-sponsored program. Rather, it is a natural, inevitable process.

It is an entirely normal process of questioning, probing, communicating, and answering. Undirected, it can lead to false assumptions, superstition, rumor, unhappiness. Fundamentally, that's why *organized* orientation is a good idea—so long as we're talking about orientation and not some other animal.

Methods of Employee Orientation at Bonneville Power Administration

IT IS in the selection of *methods* that some of the greatest difficulties will confront the Training Officer. It is always easier to rely on centrally conducted lectures than it is to do the most useful job—namely, at the working level.

However, the Department of Interior did much to lessen the difficulties involved in orientation at the work level when it suggested a systematic procedure to be followed by the immediate supervisor of the new employee.

Work-Level Orientation

THE DEPARTMENT evolved the procedure on the assumption that the lowest—rather than the highest—organization units present "the greatest opportunity for effective orientation." If the newcomer can be made to feel secure, contented, and motivated within his immediate unit, the division, bureau, and Department profit in turn by his increased devotion to duty and improved performance.

The procedure suggested involves three basic phases or steps plus a formalized, centrally operated divisional, agency, or departmental program.

In order to facilitate the new employee's introduction to his co-workers, his place of work, and his own position, the first step is geared to presentation during the employee's first day—or at least first week—on the job. It includes an explanation by the supervisor of the purpose and organization of the unit, its relation to the division and higher echelons, and the process by which the unit's work is performed, including the employee's place in that process. It is during this step that the newcomer should be presented with the Employee Handbook, introduced to his co-workers, and conducted on a tour of the unit's facilities (machines, wash room, cafeteria, etc.).

The second step is devoted to "breaking in" the new employee and at the same time winning his confidence and loyalty by establishing the supervisor as a capable, alert, and sympathetic official. The techniques to be employed by the supervisor include discussion of the job sheet, the standards of performance expected of the employee, the probationary period, and establishment of a timetable for the employee's job training. The last factor

would include a complete definition of the various elements in the job, provision of adequate instruction covering each element, and regular check-ups on the quality of performance on each point.

The final step in the supervisor's efforts is that of actually evaluating the employee's progress, and the effectiveness of his own efforts at orientation. The evaluation should occur during an employee-supervisor interview held at the conclusion of the newcomer's first month on the job. The interview should be directed toward identifying the points of strength and weakness in the employee's performance and work relations, outlining of further training to be followed by the employee, and identification of any further factors of importance to either the supervisor or the worker. The results of the interview should be embodied in a "memorandum of interview" for the supervisor's future use.

By the time this initial process of work-level orientation has been concluded, the employee should have identified the bulk of the "pieces" which make up the pattern of his new working environment.

The last step remaining, then, is the actual "fitting together" of those pieces—a step which constitutes the centrally operated portion of the orientation program.

Again, we'll look at an existing program as a means of examining the content and methods which are appropriate for this stage of the program.

Central Orientation

Orientation within the Bonneville Power Administration is governed not only by the *human* factors discussed above, but also several relating to the nature of our program and basic activities.

The primary function of the agency is the transmission of power from federal dams to load centers and its subsequent sale to distributing agents. In the sale of that power, we are directed, however, to give preference and priority to public bodies, such as REA's, Public Utility Districts, and Municipal Plants. This puts the agency right in the middle of the public versus private power battle. This situation subjects us to continual scrutiny by members of the private power industry. The propaganda and unfavorable reports emanating from that source are enough to shake the morale foundations of any organization.

BPA is an electric utility of tremendous proportions. (5,000 circuit miles of transmission line, with operations touching four Western states). Our product—electricity—is not an item from a production line. Our employees have a very understandable difficulty in relating the effect of their own efforts to the total outcome of our operation. Less than a third of the total number of employees are qualified electrical engineers. Thus, the great bulk of BPA employees have but a scanty knowledge of electricity *per se* and its various technical ramifications.

As a public agency of the federal government, certain procedures and policies of the administration are foreign to the experience of new employees—most of whom have never worked for the government. Position classification, performance ratings, and the Civil Service Commission represent unknown quantities to them, and often to their supervisors. If a promotion is not forthcoming when one feels it is due, a pat answer is "It's *Classification's* fault."

It was the feeling of the BPA Central Training Committee that the centrally operated orientation program should be so designed as to completely recognize these elements.

As a consequence, the program was initially laid out on a three-day basis. Although that length has been continued, it is recognized that as the supervisory training program continues (with increasing results) the employee orientation program will, in like measure, be materially reduced in length. This so that primary responsibility for the communication of "employee-interest" material may be placed where it belongs—at the first-line supervisory level.

To complete the full three days takes three weeks, attending one full day's program weekly. The program operates in somewhat this fashion:

Conduct of Three-Day Program

THE MORNING of the first day is devoted to a series of lecture-discussions and motion pictures related to the basic policies and objectives of the Administration. The attempt is not so much to communicate facts alone as it is to induce an attitude of receptiveness to the objectives of our program. In so doing it is necessary to anticipate the demoralizing arguments to which the new employee will be subjected as a result of his association with a "bureaucratic public power agency."

The topics presented during the morning give the employee a picture of the economic activities of the region, the relationship of those factors to a native public power and cooperative movement, and of the legislation under which the agency operates. In short, these sessions have been designed to present a view of the region's need for the Federal Power Program, and the essential policy elements of that program. These, in turn, are related to the total national resource development programs of the federal government.

In the afternoon, the employee group is divided into small sections of not more than ten persons. These are rotated through the various sections of the personnel office for discussions and get-acquainted chats with the several heads of the personnel specialties—such as placement and training, position classification, grievances, and performance ratings. In the case of older employees who have participated in the program—these sessions have resulted in some very frank and constructive criticisms of the employment situation.

The information covered during the second day of the program relates to the several basic activities in which BPA is engaged, such as resource and generation planning, transmission design planning, construction, power operation, etc. By exploring activities instead of organizational structure, I believe we are doing a better job of presenting more of the *substance* and less of the *shadow* of BPA than would otherwise be possible. Every effort is made during the day to relate individual jobs to the total program processes of the agency.

In the afternoon of the second day the material is further pointed up by conducting the group on a tour of the headquarters office and engineering facilities, during which the activities of each shop are again explained—but in general terms only.

It is on the third day that the nontechnical employee has an opportunity to absorb some of the fundamentals of electric generation and transmission.

In the afternoon, the entire group is transported to nearby J. D. Ross Substation for a tour of the control house and yard, load dispatchers' office, and the various shop facilities.

Evaluation

ALTHOUGH a precise evaluation is, of course, impossible, the observable results of the program have been generally good. Interest in further training and personal development have been obviously stimulated. .

Able, but inadequately trained personnel have been identified through participation in the program—and some have been aided in preparing personal development programs.

Through the program, "grapevine misinformation" about personnel policies and practices have been attacked with at least a measurable degree of success as far as participants are concerned.

That the agency's program is now better understood and appreciated is an obvious truth—but beyond that—further evaluation is little more than conjecture.

The program has strengthened the confidence of employees in management.

It has contributed to the development of employee morale by establishing management as being worker-oriented.

The one, and possibly most basic, value of the program that alone would justify its continued existence is that it has stimulated and re-awakened a more vital chain of "two-way" communication between management and employees. It will fail to do that and hence fail as "orientation" when management forgets its purpose and neglects to use it as a vehicle for soliciting criticisms as well as dispensing program truths.

Research in Smaller Personnel Agencies . . . . LYMAN H. COZAD

WHY SHOULD a small personnel agency attempt to do research on its methods? Such agencies usually know of many important functions they ought to be performing but which are beyond their resources. In such a situation is it practical to propose research?

An administrator's success is measured in part by the caliber or wisdom of his decisions. Any administrator who wishes to determine the proportion of his decisions in which he selected the best possible alternative is necessarily interested in research. This interest will commonly arise from a desire to be guided in future problems by the success of past decisions. It will include a wish to see where changes are needed. The alternative to research is to rely upon hunches or the subjective opinions of subordinates.

Research may suggest involved and detailed statistical analyses to many administrators. This should not be the case. Research actually means "organized fact-finding." Personnel administrators should be particularly active in research. Their decisions affect directly the welfare of many people and therefore the effectiveness of the organization they serve. They have an obligation to be sure that they are using the best methods.

Why So Little Research?

RESEARCH seems logically desirable, yet very little is being undertaken by smaller personnel agencies. Why is this so? Upon questioning, personnel administrators offer as their reasons the absence of one or more of the following:

1. Staff
2. Time and money
3. Qualified researchers and statisticians
4. Sample groups of sufficient size to make research possible
5. Sample groups of a random or unselected nature appropriate for statistical analysis (This excuse is made by the more statistically sophisticated administrators.)
6. Willingness to risk dangers to public relations and to relations with legislative bodies

Some of these reasons for not doing research work are based upon certain misconceptions. Included would be the following:

1. Confusion concerning the distinction between research and statistics
2. Misunderstanding as to the distinction between statistical tests and statistical measures
3. Belief that research work is confined principally to large-scale investigations
4. Pessimism concerning the possibility of doing personally any such large-scale research
5. Undue concern about the need for large numbers or cases, based upon this emphasis by early statistical authors
6. Failure to see the need for research in analyzing results

An Example of Practical Research

USEFUL research is possible without any of the conditions listed as being considered necessary. The only essential is a research attitude which might be termed the "objective approach." More specifically, this requires framing a question to be answered prior to securing the data from which the answer will be obtained. It means posing research questions to which there are at least two possible answers. It precludes research methods which heavily favor one result. These requirements distinguish objective research from the data collection of an organization interested only in supporting a viewpoint decided upon in advance. Thus, some employee organizations may be interested only in data which will support an increase in pay. The activities of such an organization

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would not be included in the concept of research being discussed here.

The type of research we are talking about is illustrated by the following case. Personnel Administrator A says: "I wonder if it would be better to set examination dates at the time of recruiting." By "better" he means: "Would this be superior to the present method, under which candidates are notified of the examination date at some time after the close of the filing period." He decides to compare the results of the two methods. He selects instances in which the other circumstances are approximately the same. He determines the basis upon which the effectiveness of this phase of the total recruiting procedure will be judged and then has the facts collected. One basis or criterion might be the proportion of applicants who appear for the test. He also should decide in advance the difference in proportions, or the degree of confidence, as the statisticians say, which will be required to satisfy him that any difference is dependable. Under this approach to his problem, either method may prove to be superior by adequate or inadequate margins. This qualifies as true research. His results may show a larger proportion of candidates reporting, less staff time required, and fewer failures in the notification procedure. Any of these would be a desirable result. The numbers may be small, but the proportion is what is important.

Staff Problems

Let us consider the reasons listed above as to why research is not practical. The first problem mentioned was that of finding adequate staff. This can be either a real difficulty or an excuse. The administrator who postpones doing research until he can secure a position or a unit with nothing to do but research is actually avoiding the issue. He may never have such a budget. Staff expansions of this type are among the most difficult to secure. They make easy targets for legislators attempting to hold down costs.

More analysis of this problem is necessary. Every personnel agency is devoting a certain number of man-hours to personnel administration. The percentage of that time devoted to research gives an objective indication of the agency's attitude with regard to the relative importance of this function. If it is as important as is being advocated here, it warrants some time. If there are only eight man-hours a day available for personnel administration, it is still possible to devote some small part of this to research. For example, fifteen minutes of careful thought about a problem and the alternative ways in which it might be handled, plus equal amounts of time spread over a few weeks in planning a study and collecting and analyzing data might lead to very worthwhile results. It is even possible that the results would include a saving of man-hours equivalent in a short period to the time devoted to the research. The results may not be so epoch-making that several professional journals insist upon publishing lengthy reports. But research should not be judged by these standards. If an improvement in the agency's methods can be made, the research has been successful.

The quantity, comprehensiveness, and refinement of the research done will obviously vary with the load of other work necessary and the size of the staff available. However, a five percent saving in man-hours is just as valuable to the small agency as to the large. In the same manner, research which results in a five percent improvement in the caliber of personnel attracted to or retained in the jurisdiction, or in a similar improvement in the quality of placement or training efforts would be equally worth while.

Many smaller agencies have analyzed the means by which applicants learn of employment needs. They give the applicants a simple check list. Sources such as "newspaper story," "posted bulletin," "told by an employee" are listed. The relative value of different sources is roughly indicated by a simple tabulation. Summaries may be confined to successful candidates. The time required to do this is not great. The results may be very useful.

Finding Time and Money

The problem of finding the money needed for research is closely related to the prob-

lem of finding staff. It would be unfair to pretend that either is no problem or even a very small one. The personnel agency which is unable to attract sufficient candidates for many classes of work needs to spend as much time and money as possible in its recruiting activities. Obviously, it would not be wise to devote the agency's time and money to a factor analysis of the content of one examination. This is not to disparage the larger research projects. Their value may be proportionately greater. Lawshe's studies indicated that in job evaluation plans, apparently using nine or ten rating factors, there were actually only three independent factors operating, on the average.[1] The savings in job evaluation time made possible by his results are so great as to make his work well worth while even in terms of immediate results. The point being made is only that such studies are often beyond the resources of the smaller agency.

Research on improving recruiting methods might be one means of easing the recruiting problem. In this case it clearly would be justified. The approach may not qualify as "basic research." It may simply be a comparison of the results from a small display advertisement and a classified ad. The basic question to be answered is: Are the possible results of a research project proportionate to the efforts required to carry it out? The amount of time and money necessary to do the most valuable research need not be so large as to be impracticable. Research is no less praiseworthy because its results will be of immediate, practical use. One city had a staff of three, including a person still doing graduate work. He needed a thesis topic. The agency needed research on fringe benefits practices. By combining these needs, the jurisdiction secured useful research data.

Adequacy of Statistics

Another excuse offered for not doing research is the absence of numbers of cases large enough to justify statistical analysis. It should be pointed out, first, that statistical analysis is a means and not an end. Much worthwhile research dispenses with this means almost entirely. In the second place, many recent methods of statistical analysis are designed for, and usable in, situations where very small numbers are involved. We shall refer below to the so-called nonparametric statistical methods applicable to situations in which small numbers are used. For example, personnel methods for administrative positions are obviously extremely important. A personnel agency is concerned with doing the best possible work in this area. Large numbers will never be available, but the methods used should still be subjected to the best research procedures available.

Let us take a specific case. A city of 75,000 needs to prepare an eligible list for police lieutenant. Only six sergeants will be eligible to compete. The personnel administrator would like to determine whether the methods to be used are as valid as possible. He can secure in advance rankings of candidates in the order of their probable success as lieutenants. These could be made independently by three persons holding higher positions. He can also secure reports on the actual comparative performance of those promoted to lieutenant after they have worked through their probationary periods. These data would provide an extremely useful basis of comparison. The reports of performance are better than predictions but are available later and for only part of the candidates. The method of treating the data is actually not of major importance, although there are procedures available. The important point is that this comparison will supply a means of reviewing the relative effectiveness of the different parts of the examination. This is research that would be well worth while for the jurisdiction even though the "N" is very small.

A personnel administrator may be advised that the data on which he would like some research are not appropriate for statistical analysis because they constitute a selected rather than a random sample. This is the type of advice which might be offered by someone with an elementary knowledge of statistics. There are two answers to this objection. In the first place,

[1] C. H. Lawshe and Patrick C. Farbro, "Studies in Job Evaluation: 8 The Reliability of an Abbreviated Job Evaluation System," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, April, 1949, pp. 158-66.

there are statistical methods available for treating "biased" or "nonrandom" samples. In the second place, the limitations of selected groups or samples of data relate largely to the interpretation made of the results.

It is dangerous to generalize regarding all the cases in a group on the basis of the results obtained from a biased or nonrandom sample from that group. However, this is not the usual need of the personnel administrator. He wishes to predict from his results with one selected group what the best method would be to use on a similar group in the future. Thus, the problem raised by the statistician is one which concerns a somewhat different use of the results than the administrator intends to make. It would be dangerous to predict how the total male population of the jurisdiction would do on his tests for police officer, based upon the results the last time they were used. It is not nearly so dangerous to predict the results of a new group of candidates for this class if they are selected by the same requirements. This type of prediction is a more pertinent one in personnel administration. Some means for analyzing select groups will be mentioned below.

Public Relations and Research

WHAT about the excuse relating to public relations and relations with legislative bodies? The public reaction to research has two aspects. The reaction to *what* research is undertaken will depend upon an understanding of the potential value of the results. If the problems analyzed are important and the results are intended to be used in solving the problems, there should be little danger in this connection. There may also be a reaction as to *how* the research is conducted. Administrators should not expect a degree of sophistication on the part of the public that will insure against any adverse reaction as to method. It has been headline news in some cities when public employees have been asked to fill out personality inventories. The personal questions which will be remembered and quoted to others by such employees are probably obvious.

There is also the possibility of an adverse reaction to data collection by methods which obviously could have been simplified. Here the attitude of the public and that of the administrators should coincide. The most accurate and economical procedures should of course be used.

If an agency does no research, others may do it and imply some criticism of methods used from their results.[2] An administrator may, however, fear that there will be a loss of confidence in an agency which questions its own methods. The successful experience of large organizations which have conducted morale or attitude surveys and have allowed their employees to criticize their methods openly should indicate that this fear is unnecessary.

Legislative bodies are favorably impressed by reports of savings resulting from changes in administrative methods. Such savings are usually the result of research. Certainly this type of analysis is approved by all legislators. The reaction to research, therefore, may depend upon the purposes of the research and their relationship to the goals of the agency. Salary surveys, for example, are a type of research most legislative bodies welcome because of the assistance such surveys provide in determining "community rates." The administrator who can consistently secure results that help solve administrative and policy problems will soon secure legislative support for continuing and even extending such research. By a careful analysis, an administrator in a city of 100,000 reduced to three the number of personnel forms required. It is not hard to imagine the satisfaction of his legislators with this research.

Use of Statistics

PERHAPS no factor is more used to discourage research among smaller personnel agencies than the question of proper statistical methods. This appears to be increasingly true as more technicians acquire some training in this field. To many such persons a Pearson coefficient of correlation becomes the *sine qua non* of research. From this springs the desire for random

[2] R. F. Utter, "Relation of Personality and Character Requirements to Jobs in a Civil Service Agency," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXI (1947), 651-54.

samples, large numbers, and involved computational methods. Most of these are difficult and often impossible for most smaller agencies and most areas in which research is desirable. This problem has been discussed above, in part.

It should be repeated that statistical analysis is an aid to, and not an end of, research. Such analysis provides an objective method for analyzing data. However, many of us do not realize the number and variety of methods available. A recent article[3] listed some eighteen methods of statistical analysis in which neither random samples nor large numbers are required. Most of these methods require only very simple computations and frequently employ convenient tables by which the results may be interpreted readily. Such methods make possible the use of data from several different populations, the use of ranking data, and the use of data expressed only as "better" or "worse."

Special mention should be made of the method known as "sequential analysis."[4] Through this method, the problem of the size of sample necessary for adequate statistical analysis is greatly reduced. Using this system, two methods or treatments may be compared, starting with the initial pair of cases. When the first point, or lowest number of cases is reached at which a significant difference can be established, the analysis may be terminated. This point need not be determined in advance. Persons who have used this method indicate that it is possible, on the average, to complete an analysis with approximately half the number of cases which would have been deemed necessary by more traditional statistical methods.

The possibility of outside assistance should not be overlooked. As the number of graduate students and foundations increases, there is an ever-widening possibility of securing assistance in undertaking and financing research projects. Dr. John Pfiffner's report, on pages 49-54 in this issue of the *Review,* illustrates another source of assistance, namely, higher levels of government.

Greater cooperation in research is highly desirable. With each agency having difficulty in undertaking the research it wishes, agencies should endeavor to see that they are not repeating studies made elsewhere. The Civil Service Assembly offers an excellent resource for collecting, recording, and disseminating information regarding research results. Personnel administrators should develop the habit of reporting results of studies to the Assembly even though these reports may be much less imposing than would be necessary for publication in a professional journal. They might also ask about similar research before starting new studies. In many cases the conditions under which a study was conducted are so specialized that results cannot be generalized to different situations. Nevertheless, each study provides some indication of the probable success of similar methods used in similar situations. Since research always indicates changes in the probability of results from certain methods rather than proving the certainty of anything, this type of information is useful.

Personnel agencies may also be able to cooperate directly among themselves to conduct studies beyond the resources of any one jurisdiction. Joint salary surveys offer one illustration of this approach. When one considers the amount of technical time being devoted to personnel testing, classification, pay, training, and processing, it is somewhat discouraging that more effort is not being devoted to evaluating the relative effectiveness of the various methods used.

The amount of time devoted to computing measures of internal consistency in tests, as compared to the time spent on evaluating test validity, represents a rather unfortunate neglect of the latter. We have some studies on the validity or success of tests.[5] However, very few such analyses are ever made. The excuses offered include

[3] Lincoln E. Moses, "Nonparametric Statistics for Psychological Research," *Psychological Bulletin,* March, 1952, pp. 122-43.

[4] A. Wald, *Sequential Analysis* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1947).

[5] Milton M. Mandell, "Testing for Administrative and Supervisory Positions," *Public Personnel Review,* October, 1948, pp. 190-93; "The Selection of Foremen," *Educational and Psychological Measurement,* Autumn, 1947, pp. 385-97; Mandell and S. Chad, "Tests for Selecting Engineers" *Public*

"restricted range," the confidential nature of test material prior to its use, and those listed above. Sometimes it appears that technicians are better at explaining why research cannot be done than in devising methods for doing it. Are they behaving like some legal advisors to governments?

The principal criticism of a public personnel agency on its approach to the question of test validity is not that it has failed to use certain validation methods. It is rather that it has done so little by any method. Because it has seemed difficult to produce a fairly satisfactory validation study, no study has been made. It would appear possible that in most smaller personnel agencies some data or ratings could be secured in such a way that the agency would have some indication of the effectiveness of its tests and of the various subjects included. The type of validation studies resulting might be somewhat unique to public personnel work. They would usually not be up to the standards of psychological journals. However, they should be extremely useful to the personnel administrator in answering for him the practical question: "What tests shall I use?" The scientific attitude would be: "While I think this method is the best, I will subject it to empirical test." This approach has been paid at least lip service in testing work; however, it is still rarely used in practice. It has equal value in other areas of personnel administration.

Personnel Review, October, 1950, pp. 217-22; J. S. Pearson and M. W. Strate, "The Minnesota Psycho-Analogies Test in the Selection of Psychologists for Public Service," *Journal Applied Psychology*, October, 1947, pp. 314-15.

Use of Results

If more research were conducted regarding personnel methods and the results were more widely circulated among personnel agencies, there would be an improvement in public personnel administration. Administrators would be able to improve their batting average on decisions by a knowledge of the relative effectiveness in other similar situations of the various alternative approaches. Resulting simplification in procedures would save time and give administrators more time to devote to those areas of personnel administration which must now be neglected due to lack of staff and funds. Public relations should be improved when it becomes possible to defend methods on the basis of empirical evidence. Public personnel administration, like other social sciences, would advance in prestige as concurring evidence established certain methods as superior to older approaches. This is the requirement for progress for smaller personnel agencies, as well as for those in the larger jurisdictions. Since their problems are not the same, each must do its share of the necessary research.

Position Classification and Management's End Objectives . . . MONROE F. DAY

WHAT do line administrators think about the role position classification plays in helping them accomplish the end objectives of a total organization? Or what do position classifiers as a group really think of the work in which they are engaged? Likewise, do staff technicians have the same opinion, relatively speaking, among themselves about the part the federal position classification system plays in the success or failure of an organization's primary goals?

This train of questions led the author to ask groups of line administrators and staff-arm technicians of management their opinion on the subject. All of the officials and technicians questioned were faced daily with position classification problems in their work.

When the inquiry was begun, it was stressed that individual opinions and comments would be treated confidentially and that it was not necessary for the respondents to affix signatures to the questionnaires. It was hoped that this approach would encourage frank expression as well as a greater number of replies. The resultant evidence supported the soundness of this viewpoint.

Source of Basic Data

EMPLOYEES in five major agencies in the Washington, D. C. area were questioned: Department of the Interior, Department of the Navy, Department of Commerce, Department of Agriculture, and Veterans' Administration. The employees were distributed in these five agencies among twenty component operating bureaus, and four Departmental offices each designated as the "Office of the Secretary."

As previously indicated, the participating employees comprised line administrators as well as staff technicians. The line administrators consisted of Bureau heads and a number of their Division, Branch, and Section chiefs. The staff technicians consisted of personnel officers, budget officers, position classifiers, and organization and methods analysts drawn from both the Bureau and Departmental levels.

The investigation hinged upon a single question. At the risk of over-simplification, it is pointed out that the term "over-all objectives of the organization," used in the inquiry has reference to the major end goals of the total organization such as, for example, veterans' benefits, improvement of commerce or agriculture, the construction and operation of a navy, etc. With this point of view in mind,

> To what degree do you believe the classification process is an aid to management in attaining the over-all objectives of the organization?

Provision was made for the respondents to consider various degrees of opinions and report the most appropriate one, based upon their observations and experiences. This was done by establishing a range of opinion including six levels from which they were to make their selection, as follows: outstanding, very great, great, small, very small, and none. In analyzing the results, it was determined that the opinions characterizing a high degree range included the first three specific categories, and those indicating a low degree range included the last three.

Viewpoint of Position Classifiers

ALL, or 100 percent, of the respondents who were position classifiers indicated to varying degrees that the classification process was an aid to management in attaining the over-all objectives of the organization. Well over four-fifths, or 87½ percent, felt that classification aided to a high degree ranging from "great" to "very great," al-

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though no one reported "outstanding." A small minority of 12½ percent felt it aided only to a low degree of "small" or "very small."

It may be only natural to expect that, as a rule, specialists in any field will favor their own occupation. This may be expected to some extent regardless of whether their individual replies are for the public record or not. It is obvious, however, that in this inquiry the position classifiers tempered their opinions with considered judgment. Neither of the two extremes in the total range were reported, and for some reason or other a few respondents felt their occupation was rather ineffective. Some of the sober thinking behind the replies in this respect was reflected by a respondent who replied "very great" and commented further:

> Depends on which side of the fence you are on. Some operating officials feel that classification is a "stumbling block" to management. On the other hand, they make considerable use of our knowledge of organization, procedures, etc. It is when we do not approve desired grades that our assistance or value is questioned. Classification is an aid to management at the top level, and it is also a control.

Viewpoint of Line Administrators

An expression was given by 96⅔ percent of the line administrative respondents, all of whom answered the inquiry in the affirmative. Well over four-fifths, or 86⅔ percent, felt that position classification aided to a high degree. No significant number indicated a low degree range.

How does this compare with the evaluation by the position classifiers? The opinions of the line administrators are somewhat significant. The percentages of respondents that fell into the groups reporting the high and low degree ranges of assistance are comparable to the replies of the position classifiers. In effect, the line people supported the high opinion held by the position classifiers of the effectiveness of their occupation. Replies strongly indicate that, while there is room for improvement, the operating officials in general have a high regard for position classification.

Viewpoint of Personnel Officers

All the personnel officer respondents answered the question in the affirmative. Over four-fifths, or 84 8/13 percent, fell into the upper range, and a small minority of about 15 percent reported a low degree range of assistance.

Personnel officers, in addition to other functions, are generally responsible for position classification. Why, then, did they rank below the line administrators in evaluating the aid classification gives management? Perhaps they were "too close to the trees to see the forest." Again, it is very likely that they, as well as position classifiers, often hear grumbling over a few cases that did not please management but only occasionally a word of praise over the many solutions that did meet with satisfaction.

Another reason for the "third class" feeling of the personnel officers was pointed up in the study. It is the fact that friction or misunderstanding sometimes develops between the classification and employment functions, and some personnel officers feel that the former is too unwieldy. One side[1] of this problem was reflected by a respondent who had reported "very great" assistance: "Often imposes undue restriction in placement, but can be improved."

Viewpoint of Organization and Methods Analysts

All, or 100 percent, of the O and M respondents replied that position classification was an aid to management. In view of the generally accepted fact of the close relationship between the classification and the organization functions,[2] the number of responses that fell within the low degree aid range may be somewhat surprising. Over three-fifths, or 68¾ percent, felt that position classification aided to a high

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[1] Other sides of the problem may involve such things as proper qualifications or the many personal items that comprise the field of employee relations, rather than position classification.

[2] For the close relationship between position classification and the study and planning of organization structure, see Floyd W. Reeves and Paul T. David, "Personnel Administration in the Federal Service: A Staff Report . . . ," *President's Committee on Administrative Management* (Washington: Government Printing Office; 1937), pp. 58-59.

degree; the remaining 31¼ percent indicated a low degree.

While the results do not really picture a poor showing, they do nevertheless indicate needed improvement. The potential assistance of position classification may be summed up in these words of one respondent who checked a "small" degree of assistance: "But can, and should be, great aid."

Viewpoint of Budget Officers

Over nine-tenths of the respondents, 93⅓ percent, felt to varying degrees that position classification was an aid to management in attaining the over-all objectives of the organization. However, only slightly over one-half, 53⅓ percent, indicated that a high degree of assistance was received from classification. No one felt that it was "outstanding." On the other hand, a substantial minority of over two-fifths, or 46⅔ percent, reported that a low degree of aid was received.

It can be seen, therefore, that while at first the viewpoint of the budget officers appears complimentary to position classification, actually it is not, when consideration is given to the *extent* to which it was felt this function aids management. The budget officers as a group have the distinction not only of reporting the lowest evaluation in this respect, but also of comprising the only percentage of respondents that felt classification aided "none" at all.

No clue was given in the replies by the budget officers as to why they held the relatively low viewpoints they did. Replies by them to other inquiries of a broader study, however, may shed some indirect light on the matter.[3] Incidentally, in retrospect, the attitude of the budget officers reflected in this study toward classification is somewhat similar to what it was when reported once about twenty-nine years ago,[4] although a little more favorable today.

STATISTICAL SUMMARY

Respondent Groups	*High Degree Percent*	*Low Degree Percent*
Position classifiers	87 1/2	12 1/2
Line administrators[5]	86 2/3	10
Personnel officers	84 8/13	15 5/13
O & M analysts	68 3/4	31 1/4
Budget officers	53 1/3	46 2/3

[3] Monroe F. Day, *A Survey of the Federal Position Classification System as a Tool of Management: Uses and Operation* (The American University Library, 1952), pp. 124-133.

[4] Fred Telford, "The Classification and Salary Standardization Movement in the Public Service," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Vol. 113 (May, 1924), p. 210.

[5] A small percentage failed to answer this question, which accounts for the less than 100 percent coverage shown here. This small group replied to other parts of the over-all questionnaire, however, and it therefore is considered in the category of "respondents" in the total study (see footnote No. 3). By omitting it and considering only the actual responses to the question, the revised statistics would reflect about 90 percent in the high degree range. This, of course, is a higher percentage even than was reported by the position classifiers.

A Look at the Labor Market . . MARVIN W. STRATE

Any merit system agency or personnel department does its best to recruit and examine people for public jobs. In recruiting, we compete against the advertising budgets and job attractions of all the other employers in the area, and many from outside the jurisdiction.

In the examining requirement we have what is to many people, a built-in deterrent to taking a civil service job. In any case, we have only the available people to examine, and only the people presently unsatisfactorily employed (since there are no unemployed) to recruit. We are trying to recruit as best we can, trying to make the tests as brief and as painless as possible and still do a valid job of screening and selection, and we do still fail people who don't pass the tests. Our recruiting potential, however, seems to be limited on all sides by a set of circumstances.

Population Growth and Manpower

Now LET's look at the prospects, if any, for improvement.

During 1940-1950, population in the United States of America increased 14.5%

Between 1930—1940 it increased 7.2%
Between 1920—1930 it increased 16.1%
Between 1910—1920 it increased 14.9%
Between 1900—1910 it increased 21.0%

Up to 1860, each census showed a one-third increase over the previous decade, after which it went something like this:

From 1860 to 1890—25%
From 1890 to 1910—20%
From 1910 to 1930—15%
From 1930 to 1940—7.2%
From 1940 to 1950—14.5%

In recent years, the average *annual* net increase for

1930—1940 was 900,000; for the year 1940—1,233,000; the peak was in 1947—2,789,000; during 1948—1950—2,500,000; for the year 1951—2,646,000, and for 1952—2,698,000

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These figures for 1930-40 rather lucidly sketch the apparent problem: The Census Bureau, however, in a careful projection, anticipates for the United States a labor force expanding to 89 million by 1975, as compared with 64 million in 1950.[1] The average annual increment of 1.3 percent during the next 25 years is somewhat less annually between now and 1960, but should be greater following 1960 when the World War II baby crop goes job hunting.

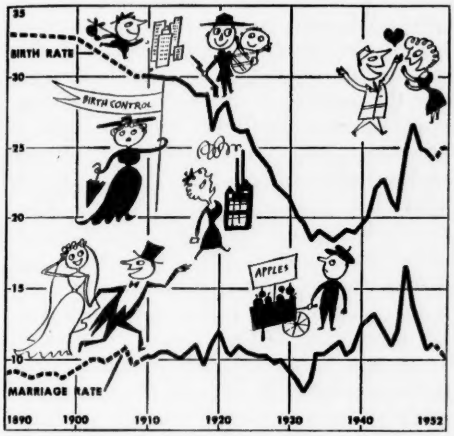
A				*B*	*Age Present*
NA	—	1920	—	27.7	33
NA	—	1921	—	28.1	32
NA	—	1925	—	25.1	28
NA	—	1930	—	21.3	23
NA	—	1931	—	20.2	22
NA	—	1932	—	19.5	21
NA	—	1933	—	18.4	20
NA	—	1934	—	19.0	19
16.9	—	1935	—	18.7	18
16.7	—	1936	—	18.4	17
17.1	—	1937	—	18.7	16
17.6	—	1938	—	19.2	15
17.3	—	1939	—	18.8	14
17.9	—	1940	—	19.4	13
18.8	—	1941	—	20.3	12
20.8	—	1942	—	22.3	11
21.5	—	1943	—	22.9	10
20.2	—	1944	—	21.5	9
19.5	—	1945	—	20.7	8
23.3	—	1946	—	24.5	7
25.8	—	1947	—	27.0	6
24.2	—	1948	—	25.3	5
24.0	—	1949	—	25.1	4
23.5	—	1950	—	24.4	3
24.5	—	1951	—	NA	2

A—Registered live births only; B—Refined birth rate figures; NA—Not Available

In actual numbers, there were about 2 million fewer people in 1950 between ages 10 and 19 than in 1940. There are 5 percent fewer potential parents in the decade 1950-1960 than in the previous decade. Unless among this group the rate of re-

[1] The labor force comprises the total of all persons 14 years old or over who are either employed or unemployed, in accordance with the criteria used in the Census Bureau's Current Population Survey, or who are members of the armed forces of the United States.

The Trends in U.S. Families



Births and marriages in the U.S. over the past six decades, figured in number per thousand population (figures at *left*), are shown in this chart. The decline in birth rate began even before 1890, brought on by the flight of young people from farm to city, increasing jobs for women and by growing availability of birth control knowledge. (Dotted line indicates estimated figures; solid lines, official statistics.) World War I had the characteristic effect of any war—a sharp decline in birth rate as men went away, a quick climb as they came back. The high prosperity of the '20s oddly accentuated birth rate decline because of the intensely competitive working life and sophisticated social outlook of the time. The rate dropped further during the depression, picked up in the early war years, zoomed to a 1947 high, seems to be leveling off. The marriage rate has slowly risen, its big peaks and dips preceding birth rate peaks and dips by just about a year. One reason for relatively high recent marriage rates has been earlier average marriage age. Another is increase in divorces which more often now mean remarriages.

production per couple is greater than it has tended to be, there will be another drop in birthrate extending to 1970. With regard to future trends in fertility, an examination by the Census Bureau of available data supports the belief that a decline from present levels is likely. Since the proportion of workers among women with preschool-age children is markedly below that for other women of comparable age, a sharp reduction in fertility would tend to increase labor force participation rates. Through 1960, however, our recruiting pool for most merit system agencies is actually going to be less than needed for normal replacements, and entirely inadequate for any great expansion. The assumption is that public service will be the less preferred field of employment, probably continuing to about 1970, if other choices are available.

Industry and agriculture have managed to expand plant and production in the face of a reduced labor supply by greater mechanization and improvement of methods. This trend may be continued, if a stable economy is predicated, in many lines of work. But in government employment, unless there is a reversal, the tendency is toward expansion of services and activities because of the increase in population generally and in keeping with the addition of new duties and responsibilities which inevitably result from the proliferation of demands.

Reduced Death Rate and Manpower

THE POPULATION will be older: In 1920 the death rate was 13.5 per 1000 population in the United States of America as a whole. In 1930 it was 11.8; in 1940, 11.2; and in 1950 it was 9.7.

This means that the available working force will be older and likewise that an increasingly large part of the population will require more care. As employees are aging, there is a cumulative effect resulting from loss of time through increased illness, and loss of efficiency or effectiveness commonly found in older people. This tends to reduce the amount of work accomplished and when magnified throughout the country the national rate of production tends to drop accordingly. The lag has to be made up by the younger, more able-bodied members of the labor force, presumably.

This further intensifies the competition for the available able-bodied younger recruits in the labor supply for whom the public service has traditionally provided attractive careers, e.g. police, fire, and other protective and inspectional jobs, and

many professional and technical jobs involving, perhaps to a greater extent than in private employment, application of the sciences and humanities. In this race, the employer offering the best deal usually wins. The public service is less attractive, generally.

There is some evidence to show that the older worker lasts longer and stays longer and is less trouble which in some ways offsets his drawbacks. Even though we may expect better health to prevail among the older people as a result of improvements in medicine and diet and the reduction of certain diseases of age, it is apparent however that a larger proportion of the population will be unproductive or require custodial care.

The Competition for 1930-40 Children

THERE will be, for a period of at least the next ten years, a smaller number of available young people (those born during the years from 1930 to 1940). We are feeling the effects of the reduced birth rates during that decade now, in the difficulty we have in recruiting persons for entrance level jobs, particularly clerical employees. An apparent reduction (of about 8 to 10%) in the magnitude of the available working force between 1952 and 1960, based on the reduced size of the young adult population during the present decade, will be a result of the low birth rates of the 1930's. Although there might be fewer new entrants into the labor force each year from among this group, a continuing rise in the number and proportion of married women, particularly those beyond 35 years of age, will be taking jobs each year. Thus, it is believed that on a national basis, the labor force will increase in about the same proportion as the population during the next decade. *It may well be, however, that replacements in the stenographic, police and fire protective fields, which are usually drawn from among the younger age groups, will be more difficult to find because of trends in population and education,* which further reduce the manpower available from the already small ranks of depression-born children.

We are feeling a recruiting pinch presently, for example, as a result of the very large and quite unexpected college enrollments. All signs pointed to a sharp reduction in the number of freshmen, with the exhaustion of G.I. educational benefits and the many more attractive employment opportunities available to high school graduates. But in 1952 nearly all colleges and technical schools found a large freshman class waiting to enter college. This currently means a further reduction in available replacements from this age group. And it means that in this country a college education today is considered to be as essential as high school was twenty years ago. This takes a potential blue collar worker and, in most cases, makes a white collar man out of him, which affects the balance or proportion of labor available for blue collar jobs commonly found in the public service.

The shortage of all kinds of labor will be felt with growing intensity for the near term as the population increases and as more women leave the working force while the care of young families requires them to remain for a few years, at least, in the home.

It must be remembered that a much larger part of the labor supply than ever before, during the past ten or fifteen years, has been drawn from the female population. In 1952, 33.8 percent of all women were in the labor force. This was unchanged since 1951, although each previous year had shown a gain after 1947's 31 percent. The continuing pattern of more than one job holder per family is very well established now.

The effects of any necessary reduction in this source of labor supply will be felt sharply, while potential workers are staying home, raising families at least to the age that permits the return of the woman of the house to the machine or typewriter. Among young women 20 to 24 years of age it is evident that high marriage and birth rates during the past year or two have reduced the labor force participation rate.

This age group is also among the college population—the proportion of girls in college is higher than pre-war. The G.I. benefits put the boys through college so the family budget now puts sister through

school rather than just brother, as was formerly the case.

The home-makers and college students of the next decade or two will be drawn from the thin ranks of those born during the years from 1930 to 1940, who are now between twelve and twenty-two years of age. These are at the most actively marriageable age and, barring some radical new development in the production and feeding of infants, the presence of the mothers in the home is a foregone conclusion. For a period that appears likely to extend to 1970 the greater amount of care of our aging population falls on this same home making segment of the population.[2] If not there, the mass care of an aging population in other kinds of homes or institutions will be a drain on our labor reserves to staff such facilities, which will be an additional demand on recruitment for the public service. Since social problems like these always result in government activity of some sort, it is probable that the demand for services resulting from or relating to social problems including police and fire, will increase. The total number of public employees and costs of government rise as social problems multiply.

With regard to the conclusion that most public jurisdictions may be confronted with a more-or-less permanent labor shortage, national projections call for an increase of between 40 to 50 percent in the labor force during the next 25 years, under assumptions of prosperous peace-time conditions. This would be consistent with projected population growth under "medium" assumptions with respect to birth and death rates. At the same time, there will undoubtedly be increased mechanization in agriculture and in manufacturing industries, which should theoretically free a larger part of the labor supply for work in supporting industries such as service and government. (A sizable part of the increased productivity might, of course, be siphoned off in the form of reduced hours of work). Some shortages of young workers might appear in the short run; by the middle 1960's, however, the effect of the high birth rates of the World-War-II and post-war years will be felt and, for several years at least, relatively large numbers of young persons should be available for work, regardless of the impact of the pattern of increased college attendance.

The Government Recruiting Problem

To sum up, public jurisdictions apparently are faced by a continuing long-term labor shortage which may be detrimental to recruiting for many vital services in which we are in competition directly with other employers to fill the same kind of jobs; e.g. engineers, nurses, accountants, stenographers.

The solution appears to lie either in cutting services to the bone, or in improving procedures so that one person can do a *better* job, not just *more* work. If you cannot get enough people to do the job the old way, you have to change the work so that the people you do have can get the job done, without being overworked, or working endless overtime.

One might also add a plea for making government employment in general more attractive and rewarding, in the interest of recruiting more, and more competent, personnel in competition with so many other employment opportunities.

From Census Bureau projections it is believed that the labor force will keep pace with increasing population, but it is the writer's thesis that the public service recruits against odds that will continue to favor private employment. All the factors together conspire to place the public service in an unfavorable position in any period of full employment. The near term, through 1960, looks like one of continuing difficulty in attracting competent employees into the public service through established merit system procedures, and it will require our best efforts to recruit desirable personnel. Having done this, all the techniques of management and public administration will be necessary to insure the most efficient utilization of employees in all public jurisdictions, through training and work improvement.

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[2] The Census Bureau forecasts a rise of 7.8 million in the labor force between 1950 and 1960. As against this, however, there is an anticipated increase in the dependent ages—7.5 million in the number of children under 15 and 3.4 million in the 65-and-over group.

PERSONNEL OPINIONS

• What is the thinking of experienced personnel people on everyday problems of personnel policy and practice? Their views can often provide readers of *Public Personnel Review* with cues to sound, constructive policy-making.

The editors have posed the same question to four civil service commissioners and have asked them to comment on the various points it raises. Here's what they say.

The Question . . . .

Do you think that it is desirable for civil service commissioners to be appointed primarily because they represent a special group?

The Replies . . . .

WILLIAM AHRENS, Member, Personnel Board, State of Wisconsin.

In discussing this question briefly, I should like first to state my understanding of the duties and responsibilities of the civil service commissioner I am thinking about.

The commissioner I have in mind is a citizen who is appointed to serve on a civil service board which has responsibility (1) for formulating policy and for rendering policy-making decisions within limits established by a civil service law and civil service rules, (2) for making judicial decisions in cases where the law, rules, or their intent may or may not have been violated, and (3) for making judicial findings in connection with appeals from an administrative decision to determine whether or not the administrative decision was a reasonable one.

With the foregoing as a premise, the best selection of a commissioner, in my opinion, is a person who has no affiliations or strong personal interests to make it difficult for him to be completely objective in all his decisions. I mean completely objective in the eyes of *all* the *taxpayers* and *all* the *civil servants.*

Here, I do not mean to imply that representatives of special groups cannot be objective in their decisions because, of course, they can. But let's remember that these folks are human; they have a strong personal interest, and they usually have constituents. And let's remember, too, that some of the important decisions a civil service commissioner will be called upon to make may be in areas of various special interests.

Representatives of special groups should be given every opportunity for a full hearing. If they have a good case, they do not need "protection" with their case in the hands of a good commission—any more than they need "protection" by representation in a court of law.

ELEANOR BEARD, Member, Minnesota Civil Service Board.

In Minnesota, almost every session of the legislature sees a bill introduced which would require one or more members of the Civil Service Commission (or Board as we are called in Minnesota) to be appointed as a representative of some special interest group. So far, no such bill has become a law in this state.

It has generally been the conviction of our legislature, and those Minnesota citizens who are most interested in a good civil service system, that such a provision would weaken civil service and seriously hamper the just and proper functioning of the Board. The present members of the Minnesota Civil Service Board concur in this conclusion.

We believe it is essential that *every* member of the Board be able to approach each question in as objective and unprejudiced a manner as possible, recognizing that it is the responsibility not of one member, but of *all* members to represent the best interests of employees and also of department heads and government administrators and of the public at large. Only so, we believe, can there be a meeting of minds and a fair decision on controversial questions.

Furthermore, it seems to us that even if it were desirable, it would be impossible for any one of the many groups concerned to be fairly and exclusively represented by any one individual. Heads of departments obviously could not be represented because they are an unorganized group, and no one department head could speak for others. Yet department heads are vitally concerned in most of the decisions of the Civil Service Commission. Perhaps the most frequent claim is that *employees* should be represented on the Board. What employees? Employees who are veterans or the nonveterans? Their interests do not always coincide. Professional groups or nonprofessional groups? Organized employees or unorganized? Those who favor the A.F.ofL., or the C.I.O., or some

unaffiliated organization of employees? What about Negroes and women employees? Should their interests be represented by some one member on the Board?

Does it not seem obvious that if anyone can be found who is broad enough to represent fairly all these different types of employees whose interests are often conflicting, then it is surely possible to find three individuals who are broad enough and fair-minded enough to consider the interests of all employees and *also* the interests of the department heads and other groups and individuals who will be affected by the decisions of the Commission?

It seems to me that the best interests of good government, as well as the best interests of all groups connected with civil service, would be served when no member of the Civil Service Commission is committed or prejudiced in advance in favor of any one group as opposed to others, and when all members are free to weigh without prejudice the various complicated factors involved in each issue under consideration.

James V. Bellanca, Member, Civil Service Commission, Detroit, Michigan.

It is my firm opinion of long standing that all public officials must or should represent the entire general public. This is obviously true for governors, mayors, and presidents. I think it is equally true of multi-member bodies such as legislatures, city councils, and administrative boards and commissions. I am fully aware that multi-member bodies were designed to present a cross section of public opinion and that to get a representative cross section, there will be diverse opinions and antecedents of the person so elected or appointed.

I do not intend to make a play on words, but I feel that to get a representative sample of public opinion or an adequate cross section, members of boards and commissions and more particularly civil service commissions, must be selected in such a way that the cross sample is truly representative. To my mind, the first question to be asked by the appointing officer regarding a possible candidate for a commissionership is: "Will he truly represent all the public?" I appreciate that in this world all of us have certain biases and prejudices of which we may not be aware, but which may influence our thinking. Even when this question is answered in the affirmative, it is necessary for the appointing officer to select persons with a variety of backgrounds so that whatever prejudices and thinking patterns they may have established will be offset by the other members of the board or commission.

It is obviously impossible with a three-, four-, or five-member commission to appoint representatives of each minority or special interest group. If such a theory were adopted, I pose the question: "How could it be known that a single individual would fairly represent all of organized labor?" There are at least two national labor organizations and many independent organizations.

It is questionable whether any one person could adequately represent all of these groups. Similarly, there are literally dozens of minority groups, certainly in any large city. No one person could conceivably be considered as representing all of such minority groups. This same thinking applies to professional groups where there are many professions with various viewpoints and interests. It is not even possible in my opinion to appoint representatives of all the special interest groups even where combinations are sought. For example, we might find a medical man who is a member of a minority racial group and also a member of a taxpayers' association. Another person might represent a labor union, the employees of a jurisdiction, and be a professional person.

After this analysis, I feel that my originally stated conclusion is correct, that a mayor, governor, or whoever is responsible for an appointment to the civil service commission should be primarily concerned with whether or not a prospective appointee will do a good job and will consider the interests of all the people. At the same time, I think that care should be taken to see that such appointees do not follow a single pattern of background so that prejudices and biases will be duplicated rather than offset.

Peter E. Chu, Member, Civil Service Commission, Territory of Hawaii.

I appreciate your asking me for an expression regarding my opinion of whether it is desirable for civil service commissioners to be appointed primarily because they represent a special group.

My answer is emphatically NO.

The purpose of lay boards or commissions is to bring into public service men and women in a community who are highly respected for their interest in government and whose integrity and honesty are above reproach. Their job is to serve the community—to translate the law into services for the people it represents—to develop the policies and direct the work.

I do not see that a civil service commission can carry out its basic function—that of developing a merit system for government employees—with members appointed primarily because of their special interests. Especially

will this be true if commissioners are appointed because they represent employees or employers. There would be difficulties in finding a person truly representative of his special interest. What would be the standards for the employee representative on the commission? Shall he represent—labor or management, professional or clerical, top authorities, or rank and file? What stand shall he take—that of the administration and its policies, or that of the employees? Shall the organized employee union be recognized as the sole representative of the total group of employees?

The same inability to separate oneself from a special group holds true for representatives of private business. Who is truly a representative of such enterprise—the small businessman, the laborer, the corporation head, the chamber of commerce, the employers' council, the man from the leading business? These questions come to mind as one develops standards for membership on commissions.

Foremost qualification for membership on a civil service commission is integrity and honesty, coupled with the ability to place public service before private interests to bring the best for government.

Organizationally, commissions cannot be made up of special representatives. It would be impossible to determine what representation shall make up the commission. Shall it be a three-member board, five-member, ten-, or more? If employees are represented, then employers must be; if one jurisdiction is, then all others; if the nurses' association is, then the cooks' must be. Commissions would grow to become awkward and unwieldy as each special group niched its way into membership.

With members selected on the basis of their unselfish interest in good progressive and democratic government, persons from special interest groups need not fear that the intent and purpose of the law is not carried out. Forthright commissions should also take every means available for the presentation of facts to the public, for the good administration of an appeal and hearing system available to all, for the principle of open meetings available to press, special interest groups, employee groups, union representatives, business associations, etc.

If high standards are developed as requirements for the post of civil service commissioners, and if such requirements for a public service job were scrupulously met by the appointing authority, there really would be no need for special interest groups to be concerned that they were not being fairly represented.

THE BOOKSHELF

MORALITY IN AMERICAN POLITICS. George A. Graham. Random House, New York, 1952. 337 pp. $3.50.

Professor George Graham of Princeton University was a consultant to the "ethics subcommittee" of the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare in 1951. Partly out of that experience, and partly out of his years of teaching and study about government, came this book. It is a vigorous and direct analysis, with a strong moralistic tone. While it is not primarily philosophical or speculative, it contains much social philosophy of a high order.

The author says that the moral nature of authority in the American political system is relatively clear, and suggests that it can be founded on three great principles implicit in the Declaration of Independence: First, political authority is not based on power alone but must have a moral and rational basis; second, the *public* interest is the criterion by which political actions must be judged; and, third, governments must be based on the organic principle of representation, deriving their power from the consent of the governed. He thinks these basic moral principles have been too often overlooked in the context of American life because of beliefs in the "automatic" qualities of our economic and political systems, great emphasis on constitutionalism and legalism, and very substantial achievement in safeguarding the welfare, status, and freedom of the individual man and woman. We have been softened by our accomplishments into forgetting, in part, our moral foundations.

Congress, many members of which have been properly outraged by their discoveries of wrongdoing in the executive branch and in the great cities, might be slightly taken aback by the forthright way in which Mr. Graham puts it on the carpet, along with the state legislatures. He says that the framers of the Constitution expected Congress to exert "great moral force and great moral leadership," but that it has failed "miserably to achieve the moral force and leadership expected of it," and the state legislatures have "lost the moral strength and leadership which they once had." The indictment of the legislative bodies is severe, but the evidence seems overwhelming. He charges, and with strong documentation, that legislative assemblies have low prestige, that they are characterized by negativism, are filled with friction and frustration, are too much concerned with nonlegislative activities, are frequently dominated by particularism, have permitted internal corruption without discipline, have distorted representation by shocking failures in apportionment and abandoned it in committee structures, have rejected group responsibility, and that they have often challenged the principle of rationality in the search for facts and evidence upon which legislation should be based. The legislative reforms he suggests, in the direction of strengthening party responsibility and revision of committees to lessen "the unrepresentative and irresponsible personal power of powerful individuals," are not new. Like other medicines, it is not that they have been tried and found wanting, but that they have been found hard and not tried.

The executive and, in general, the administrative agencies, come out somewhat surprisingly better in his analysis, although not unscathed. He says that "the great strength of the Presidency is its moral force" and that "governors of American states have steadily grown in power and influence . . . because they have demonstrated their effective concern with the public interest." However, there is no hesitation whatever in condemning the practices revealed during the Congressional investigations of 1950 and 1951, and the "dangerous heresy" that the President and the department heads were not responsible for these transgressions.

Professional public servants will be especially interested in the suggestions made for strengthening the ethical context of the bureaucracy. Mr. Graham places particular emphasis on the need for the development of "generalists" in the career service, and of career positions at high levels in the departments, above the bureau level. He suggests stiffening of the criminal code, development of professional codes, enactment of a special code of official conduct, great reliance on disclosure of both public and private affairs of public servants, and continued efforts at improving management.

The reader is likely to put the book down with the rather heartening feeling that, while we have ethical and moral troubles, some things are being done about them and there are other things that can reasonably be done.
—YORK WILLBERN, *Professor of Public Administration, University of Alabama.*

EXECUTIVE SUITE. Cameron Hawley. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1952. 344 pp. $3.00. Also published by Ballantine Books, Inc.

Readers of "Executive Suite" get an insight into modern business—and businessmen—that is somewhat more accurate and more sympathetic than most of the previous fiction which has concerned itself with the business world. For once the businessman is not the familiar materialistic caricature who has hurt the public standing of American business, and while the central figures of "Executive Suite" may not emerge as admirable fellows, at least they are relatively normal members of society. The fact that Author Hawley served himself as an executive of a large company not only makes his exposition authentic but interesting as well.

Cameron Hawley introduces us to American business in the form of the Tredway Corporation, a large furniture manufacturer, tracing briefly its origin and development into a major enterprise pretty much dominated by its president Avery Bullard.

President Bullard's sudden death poses the question of who shall succeed him, and that question is the peg on which the story is hung. We meet Bullard's associates—five vice presidents handling various branches of the company's activities—and after a somewhat confusing sequence of flashbacks to give us the history and character of the candidates for the presidency, mainly self-appointed, we settle down to the interesting and spirited campaign to determine the winner.

Apparent front-runner in the earlier stages of the proceedings is Loren Shaw, vice president and comptroller, who suffers most from Author Hawley's occasional excesses in overdrawing the situation. While endowing Mr. Shaw with an unusually high amount of self-regard and driving ambition, Mr. Hawley contrives him to be extraordinarily preoccupied with the significance of such minor manifestations of authority as precedence in entering a room, and who sits where. In the long run, however, Mr. Shaw's principal liability turns out to be his own field itself, that of finance. It may come as a surprise that the officer responsible for the financial stability of the business institution not only is sometimes viewed with less than enthusiasm by his fellow officers (which is an understandable result of varied viewpoints) but also is considered unqualified for leadership because of his preoccupation with money. This may present top management in a somewhat different light to certain readers, but it should not be allowed to minimize unduly the merit of black figures in corporate profit and loss statements. On the whole, however, Mr. Shaw simply fails to get what isn't coming to him.

Slow to start but fast to finish is Don Walling, vice president of design, who possesses the traditional ingredients of American business success—youth, imagination, creative drive and boldness, among other attributes. For almost too long a time he doesn't seem quite sure of his own ambitions and capabilities, but at the appropriate time the opportunity which has been created does crystallize for Walling, and he emerges as the strong man speaking out on the requirement of business leadership with such words as: "A company is like an army—it fights on its pride. You can't win wars with paychecks. A man . . . wants more than money."

And there Mr. Hawley touches the inner quality of American business success. Call it whatever you will—pride of accomplishment is as good as any—it is the indefinable substance which is ever present in the successful business enterprise as it must be in every successful human activity.

Mr. Hawley does business a service by developing this often overlooked fact.—ROBERT E. JOHNSON, *Vice-President and Assistant to the President, United Air Lines.*

WHY WORK? INEFFICIENCY IN FEDERAL CIVIL SERVICE. Deula Counts. Vantage Press, New York, 1952. 164 pp. $2.75.

"Why Work?" by Deula Counts is the diary-like account of a stenographer's work experience with the federal government, where she had several periods of employment beginning about five years before Pearl Harbor. The setting for this book seems to be an industrial establishment of the Navy Department's field service in Southern United States, where certain training programs were being administered fo' :he benefit of returning veterans.

While the author intends her book to be a scathing criticism of government operations, it is necessary to take into account the author's own frame of mind and outlook which in her own words is as follows: "I guess I am a misfit, and it is too late to do anything about it. Fate, circumstances, lack of initiative, or what-you-will, has thrown my lot with the government." Later in the book she confides: "My estimate of myself remained the same: I was a failure though I had tried much harder than the average to find a niche. Of course, I was suffering from a common ailment, an inferiority complex."

The author belabors the point that her office was over-staffed, poorly supervised and torn by petty jealousies. On the basis of this experi-

ence, she generalizes that the whole government is over-staffed, poorly supervised, and torn by petty jealousies. She claims that since women do three-quarters of the work in government offices, they should run such offices. When they do, says she, the government will be run more economically as well as more efficiently.

The book describes one office incident after another. Such descriptions occur at the rate of about one per page, and there are 164 pages. Concerning the question of whether the office in question was over-staffed, one is left with no basis for judgment since one reaches a conclusion that the author is a biased reporter.

In fairness to the author, it can be said that she has an interesting and amusing style of writing. On behalf of myself and other taxpayers, it is hoped that she will stick to writing (fiction) and not seek reemployment with the government.—JAMES G. STOCKARD, *Bureau of the Census, U. S. Department of Commerce.*

SIZING UP PEOPLE. Donald A. Laird and Eleanor C. Laird. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1951. 270 pp. $3.75.

This book is a simply written and easy to understand discussion of current psychological knowledge as applied to employee selection. It was written with an eye to popular consumption. Its passages convey to the reader the universal truth that the ability to size up people is an integral part of today's living, not only in business, but in social life as well. It seems to the reviewer, however, that the persons to whom the authors are speaking directly are the large number of employment interviewers, executives, and owners of small businesses, who have not had advanced college training in psychology or personnel, yet must perform personnel work. For this group the book fulfills an important need. The book can be understood by the high school graduate. In fact, the author determined its level of comprehension with such a group and re-wrote passages which were not understandable at that level.

The Lairds begin the book with ten steps to be followed in increasing one's accuracy in sizing up people. These rules of thumb bear mention here. They are:

1. Know your prejudices and allow for them.
2. Look for details and disregard general impressions.
3. Take time to form your judgment. Observe steadily and change your estimates as often as necessary.
4. Give more attention to past behavior than to appearance.
5. Look for meaningful qualities, not for pet theories.
6. Look for characteristics, do not judge as "good" or "bad."
7. Use reasonable standards; do not be "hard" or "easy."
8. Get the other person to do most of the talking, and on topics that reveal his characteristics.
10. Know *why* we estimate him high, average or low.

Trouble in personal life as well as in business can result from misconceptions of abilities and interests. Parents, teachers, or employers may force an individual into entirely unsuitable occupations because they have sized them up incorrectly.

Prejudices are serious pitfalls when judging a person—his weight, stature, handshake, hair coloring, or style of dress may have almost no relationship to the work he might be capable of doing.

People differ in many mays—build, muscular abilities, and mental abilities. How these mental abilities and intelligence are measured, plus illustrative samples of test items, are discussed at some length. The Lairds outline the development of this field of study from Galton through the "Atom Splitting of Intelligence Stage" created by Thurstone's factor analysis to the Stoddard studies, which show that intelligence can improve with environmental changes, etc.

Another factor important in selecting the right individual for a specific job is the analysis of the job itself. Job analysis and job specifications have become important aspects of modern industry.

Personality is still another phase in human make-up. "Personality is individuality—the combination of characteristics which make every person act and feel a little different from anyone else in the world," say the Lairds. This personality section includes a description of Guilford's works and findings in the segregation of the Primary Temperamental Qualities, Cattell's Primary Personality Traits, as well as separate chapters on the effect of the endocrine glands, estimating trustworthiness, and a somewhat amusing chapter on sizing up women.

The personality is one of the most obvious things present in the initial interview and should be studied with diligence, along with intelligence, interest, and abilities.

The attitude of both the prospective employee and employer should be one of confidence, feeling that in a suitable job the employee will make good. Necessary training and a helpful attitude from instructors and super-

visors are important factors in how a job is done. As in individuals, there are unused abilities found in many industries.

The final chapters of this book concern how to make better use of abilities in business and when tests should be used.

The trained interviewer, plus both mental and physical tests, when deemed necessary, and on-the-job training, when used together, should increase the chance of finding the right person for the right job and result in both individual and company security.—DANIEL W. HANDLIN, *Personnel Director, Lincoln State School and Colony.*

BOOK AND PAMPHLET NOTES

AMERICA'S MANPOWER CRISIS. Robert A. Walker, Ed. Public Administration Service, 1313 E. 60th Street, Chicago 37. 1952. 191 pp. $3.00.

This is a report of the results of the Institute on Manpower Utilization held in August, 1951, at Stanford University. The Institute was sponsored by the Presidents of Stanford University, the University of California, and the University of Southern California, with the cooperation of several professional organizations. The subject matter is divided into three principal areas: (1) Government Policies for Manpower Allocation; (2) More Effective Utilization of Manpower; and (3) Developing and Recruiting Administrative Leadership for National and International Programs.

A GUIDE TO AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS IN INDUSTRIAL AND LABOR RELATIONS. J. J. Jehring. New York State School of Industrial Relations, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York. 1952. 56 pp. 25 cents.

A list of films, recordings, and transcriptions classified under the following headings: economics, education and training, human relations, industrial history and processes, industrial safety, labor history and organization, politics and social welfare, steward training, and supervisory training. A brief description of each item is given to enable the reader to decide whether or not he is interested in previewing. The pamphlet also has an alphabetical index and a source index.

HOW TO SUPERVISE PEOPLE. Alfred M. Cooper. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York. 1952 (3d ed.). 254 pp. $3.75.

A book designed to set forth methods by which the supervisor may assume full responsibility for maximum production in his department and for the development of morale and cooperation among his subordinates.

HOW TO MAKE A WAGE SURVEY. David W. Belcher and Herbert G. Heneman, Jr. Wm. C. Brown Company, Dubuque, Iowa. 1950. 41 pp. $1.00.

A technical report of the Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota. It covers the most frequent and serious problems encountered in making a wage survey and suggests procedures to assure reliable, accurate wage data.

EMPLOYEE HANDBOOK PRINTING PRACTICES. Lenore P. Nelson. Wm. C. Brown Company, Dubuque, Iowa. 1950. 13 pp. $1.00.

A technical report of the Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota. This handbook describes the extent to which present-day practices conform to the rules of good typography and what good printing practices can achieve.

HOW TO DEVELOP A WEIGHTED APPLICATION BLANK. Josephine Welch, C. Harold Stone, and Donald G. Paterson. Wm. C. Brown Company, Dubuque, Iowa, 1952. 19 pp. $1.00.

A technical report of the Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota. This report presents, step-by-step, the procedures for developing, scoring, and validating this selection technique.

Current Literature

Articles of Interest in the Public Personnel Field

Personnel Administration

RAMSPECK, ROBERT, "Administrative Flexibility and the Federal Service." *Public Administration Review,* Autumn 1952.—In this article, the then-Chairman of the United States Civil Service Commission undertakes to reply to certain points raised by Bernard Gladieux in an article on "Civil Service versus Merit," appearing in the preceding issue of the same journal. A recent recruit to private employment, after a long period of government service, Mr. Gladieux now finds much in the public service to criticize. To his complaint that the federal personnel system increasingly hampers the operating official, and the recommendation that personnel operations be decentralized even more than they now are, the author replies that the Commission has made important delegations of authority, that it has—in fact—gone about as far as it can without abdicating its authority. In the field of recruitment and placement, Mr. Gladieux outdoes the Hoover Commission whose "outstanding," "well qualified," and "qualified" he would merge into a single category of all of those who meet the minimum standards prescribed. Pointing out that the Commission is clearly on record as favoring a modified version of the Hoover Commission's proposals, the Chairman presents a number of examples (White Sands Cooperative Training Program, JMA Program, examinations for higher grade positions, open continuous examinations for higher administrative posts, and making immediate appointments in shortage categories), cases in which, within the framework of existing civil service rules and regulations, significant advances have been made. Mr. Gladieux has other criticisms of the federal service. He deplores the weight given to tenure in deciding on promotions; pictures the federal service as fast becoming a sanctuary for the mediocre and unimaginative; finds the reduction-in-force rules highly unsatisfactory. He wants as much uniformity government-wide as is consistent with the right of an agency to exercise its discretion in dealing with its own special problems. He seems to fear an "entrenched bureaucracy." The former Chairman recognizes the existence of most of these problems, contends that the Commission has taken appropriate steps in dealing with them. The federal government has in recent years, he says, "taken definite steps to: (1) Decentralize personnel management as rapidly as the writing of standards and training of agency officials permit; (2) Standardize and streamline the inevitable 'paper work' of personnel administration; and (3) Bring the central personnel authority and agency officials together as a team for improving personnel management." He believes "that the Civil Service Act has been effective in providing the nation with a career service based on merit rather than on political affiliation or influence."—*W. Brooke Graves.*

Training

JENNINGS, EUGENE E., "Forced Leadership Training." *Personnel Journal,* October, 1952. —What is the best way to train supervisors to understand and deal with human relations problems? Too often, in the usual training conference, the conference leader, who selects the problem and guides the discussion, is the only person who benefits from the procedure. Any misunderstandings, prejudices, or embarrassing situations that might not be identified with the conference on human relations problems, similar to those encountered by supervisors on the job, are also resolved and mediated by the leader. How can the conferees be encouraged to solve their own problems by their own means? One way to stimulate self-directive training is to have the members of the conference group select their own problems, develop their own solutions, and control any awkward situations that may arise during the discussion in their own way. When this training method is used, however, frequently only a very few members of the group actually participate in the conference. To encourage maximum participation, a modification of the "member-centered" method has been devised which creates a situation in the training session that will more or less "force" the conferees to participate. A group of trainees develop their own case-study around a particular human relations problem. They are then divided into small groups of four or five each, and each group is instructed to go into a huddle, and within a time limit, bring back and present before the whole group a solution. No one is designated as the discussion leader, but each group selects their own leader, or one person assumes this role. This "leader," in turn, presents his particular group's solution before the entire group. A second session is held at a later date with a new problem for discussion selected by the trainees. The so-called "leaders" of the first session are put into one group and the remaining trainees are randomly distributed into

several small groups, giving another opportunity to the "nonleaders" to participate. This procedure is repeated in additional sessions with the "leaders" of the preceding sessions randomly placed into small groups, and the "nonleaders" likewise, until eventually the "nonleaders" are "forced" to assume leadership roles.—*George R. McDonald.*

"On-the-Job Training of Supervisory Personnel." *Public Management,* January 1953.—Training helps to get things done. Through training, staff members learn to work together as a team, and staff performance is improved. Also, good second-level supervision is developed, so that it is possible to make promotions from within the staff. Since most supervisory personnel are appointed on the basis of their technical ability, conditions can be greatly improved by giving the supervisor the proper tools to solve his human relations problems and gain a proper supervisory attitude. Day-to-day contacts on a planned basis can be one of the most effective methods of training. Other methods include staff conferences, movies and slides, radio programs, and specialized or correspondence courses. Good subject material and able instructors are generally available. Perhaps the most difficult part of the administration of a training program is the maintenance of interest and enthusiasm—"training spirit." Here, management must take the lead. If management will provide proper facilities for training and will offer some recognition to those who complete the course, it will not be necessary to make attendance compulsory. The results of training may be appraised by an employee questionnaire, filled in anonymously, and by the observation of changes in the level of performance. In addition, it must be remembered that intangibles such as employee morale need to be weighed even though they cannot be measured.—*Daniel M. Kirkhuff.*

Goetz, Rachel M., "Visual Aids and State Governments." *State Government,* November, 1952.—Visual aids have moved out from under the "gadgets-and-gimmicks" label and into the role of trusted tools of state administration. Effective use of typography, graphics, and display techniques is appearing all over the governmental landscape. Radio and television, coming into wide use in governmental reporting and public discussion, are drawing still tighter the links that bind the new tools of communication to governmental operation. Every state in the Union is in the business of producing or distributing films, or both. Motion picture production by state governments is a recent phenomenon. Evidence points, however, to operations of sizeable dimensions. These films fall into two categories: those for public information and those for in-service training. In the public information category, three types are to be found: promotional films, public reporting films (dealing with the various facets of state governmental operations—legislative processes, tax and fiscal matters, institutional operation), and films on governmental problems (health, mental health, education, traffic safety, recreation and housing). Film production is costly and technical. The charges have forced state governments into various types of cooperative arrangements to share costs and pool resources. Cooperation with the federal government is growing both in the distribution and production of films. In the field of training films, it is difficult to piece together the story of state governmental activity, for many of the films currently in use do not appear in rental libraries or in the usual film listing. The chief resources in this field are the hundreds of preexisting films that are used by or are potentially useful to state and local governments. These come from the federal government, from industry, and from the educational film field. Recent technical developments bid fair to extend still further the usefulness of training films. The Joint Reference Library of the Public Administration Clearing House has yielded a wealth of examples of graphics and displays as used in state government. Pilot projects have revealed not only the potential riches of visual aids but also the roadblocks to their full use. These factors underline the need for specialized audio-visual services in the governmental field. (Details regarding film rental libraries and films are included).—*Ullmont L. James.*

Supervision

Pelz, Donald C., "Influence: A Key to Effective Leadership in the First-Line Supervisor." *Personnel,* November 1952.—In 1948 the University of Michigan Research Center was invited by the Detroit Edison Company to make a study of its employee's attitudes. As part of this three-year study, an answer was sought to the problem of "what attitudes and behavior in the first-line supervisor lead to greater employee satisfaction." Data was obtained from questionnaires and personal interviews of supervisors and employees and were divided into low and high satisfaction groups. In the first analysis of the data, few significant differences were found between the effect on the low and high satisfaction groups. This appeared to result from the erroneous assumption implied in the method used "that a certain leadership practice will produce high employee

satisfaction in all groups." In the second analysis, the groups were broken down into different types of people and situations. Significant differences in the two groups emerged but were often contradictory. In the third approach, the supervisor's influence in the organization, a factor suggested by other research, was employed as a yardstick by which to determine the effect of his practices upon employee satisfaction. The results suggest that if a supervisor's behavior is commensurate with his ability to help employees achieve their goals, such behavior will increase employee satisfaction. On the other hand, the same behavior by a supervisor who does not accomplish results will lower the satisfaction of his employees. For example, "siding with employees" and "social closeness" under high influential supervisors tended to increase satisfaction, while the same practices decreased satisfaction under low influential supervisors. Training in methods of supervision may be a waste of time unless supervisors are given the authority to secure results by putting the training into practice. It may also be necessary to increase the supervisor's influence in administration, provided there are controls for preventing his using it against the interest of his employees.—*John W. Proctor.*

Promotion

ELLIOTT, JOHN M., "Promotion from Within: Fact or Farce?" *Personnel* November, 1952:—Many employers today have come to the conclusion that it is more effective, and cheaper in the long run, to develop their own executives rather than hire such talent from the outside. The policy of promotion from within depends to a large extent for its success upon the mechanics of advancement. Executive programming, to provide an adequate number of trained, seasoned executives, must take into account three basic steps. The *first step* is to determine the organization's rate of need for managerial talent over a period of time. To assist in determining anticipated replacement needs, charts must be prepared showing the ages of the men at present holding executive jobs. Once the need has been determined, the *second step* is to determine the supply of promotable candidates from within the organization. This step will involve a complete knowledge of the executive material and will result in a determination of the number of personnel who are further promotable or those that have reached their limit or should possibly be demoted or replaced. At this stage, the inter-relationship of the demand and supply figures would indicate to what extent one can be successful in filling future positions by promotion as opposed to the immediate necessity of recruiting from the outside such executive talent to balance the picture. The *third step* is to keep the managerial manpower in balance once it has been established. This involves an analysis of the time it takes to train executives for the various levels in conjunction with the rate of exodus of executives at various levels. Long experience indicates that skillful recruiting of a carefully predetermined number of management trainees annually is the only possible way of controlling the correct ratio of management talent. One often wonders whether it is possible to predict at the time of a man's employment whether he has the potential to reach management levels. Results of studies in a number of nationally known organizations have indicated the following generalities: (1) Men who reach managerial levels, on the average, get off to a fast start in their twenties and reach their highest level in their middle thirties, with the exception of a few men who go further to the higher administrative posts. In addition to this factor, it must be borne in mind that the young trainee, once he has reached his peak in development, will have more years of service for his company than the older man. On the other hand, to recruit from the outside executive talent, it is usually necessary to pay in excess of beginning rates. Furthermore, all men require maturing and usually it is less expensive to have the maturation take place when the salary is at a lower figure. Records show that college-trained men stand a better chance of promotion than men without college training. It has also been shown that men who have demonstrated campus leadership in college stand a measurably better chance of promotion in business than those who did not demonstrate such college leadership, particularly in marketing areas. It has been found that the average mental alertness test scores of the men who progressed to management levels are anywhere from 35 to 50 percent above the average scores of those who remain in routine jobs. From these findings, it can be seen that men who reach managerial levels differ in certain respects from men in routine capacities, and that these differences can be measured at the time of employment. Many organizations take pride in providing two and three understudies for each managerial post. This seems to be a wasteful and unnecessary technique, unless a company is planning for considerable expansion of its activities. A program designed to give a three-to-one replacement program must mean some de-

moralization due to immobility in the promotion field. It would seem more effective to provide a smaller number based on a different ratio. This calculation must take into account: (1) the time required to reach management level, and (2) the turnover rate of such trainees. It is possible to predetermine the number of trainees to be employed each year and to set quotas for each operating division, giving them their percentage of the intake. If, for example, it is found that a group of twenty-five men should normally include five men of promotable calibre, each time that one of the five men leaves the department, his job must be filled by a man of development calibre who meets the more severe employment standards. On the other hand, a man leaving who is not of development calibre would be replaced by someone not of development material. Will a deliberate attempt to plan futures for specific groups not engender demoralization? The alert executive always has men in mind for posts of greater responsibility. To systematize and formalize the plan should not in itself be a basis for demoralization. The progress of men selected as trainees "should be evaluated at least semi-annually and their right to be classified as candidates for promotion reviewed at these times." Thus, the plan is kept flexible, with names continually being added or deleted. "It has been the experience of several large firms which have such plans in operation that they attract more higher calibre young men, thus greatly facilitating their recruiting operations. Conversely, a surprising number of the abler young men today are avoiding employment with firms which do not have a well-formulated program of promotion from within." Costs of a planned program are less than when needs are left to chance.—*Kenneth R. J. Scobie.*

Interviewing

Sweezy, Eldon E., "Group Interviews in Selection of Supervisors." *Personnel Administration,* November, 1952. Intelligently applied, the group oral performance interview can materially improve the selection of supervisors and executives. Detailed empirical rather than exhaustive scientific analysis is presented. "The impact of an individual upon groups engaged in reaching a mutual objective" is established as a reliable indicator of potential supervisory or executive success. Two carefully selected questions are presented to the candidate group to be interviewed. Of critical importance in insuring maximum effectiveness of this oral performance test is that questions present a "need to solve a problem and to reach a conclusion." Interviewers are schooled to concentrate on how the candidate makes his contribution rather than its specific technical content. Examiners judge (1) "the individual mental, emotional, and social maturity of the candidate," and (2) "the role played by the candidate in the group's deliberations." Failure to attempt to maintain position against opposition, lack of adaptability, unreasonable argumentativeness, listless participation, personal antipathy or antagonism, and superiority affectations are indicative of the lack of personal, social, and emotional stability and maturity qualities which are vital on the supervisory and executive level. Individual mental capabilities are measured, among other ways, by evidence of broad interest in subject matter, keen intellectual curiosity, and analytical cause and effect reasoning. Candidates who attain superior ratings in the examination phase, briefed above, merit consideration on the roles they assume in the group discussion. Persons who select or revert to "passive" roles during the group interview "give evidence of poor executive potential." Candidates in roles which have "an active, goal-reaching impact upon the group" evidence good executive potential. Roles characteristic of lack of executive potential are those taken by persons "primarily concerned with the contribution of facts and the maintenance of rituals in discussion." More acceptable roles, indicative of potentialities for executive and supervisory positions are: "the analysis and synthesis of discussion material, the motivation of the group, and the resolution of differences."—*Helen Thompson.*

Classification

"Line Administrators Evaluate Position-Classification." *Personnel Administration,* November, 1952.—For thirty years the federal government has functioned under a Congressionally authorized position classification plan. Proponents justify the initiation and continuance of the system on its value as a tool of management. Critics attack the effectiveness of its operation and utilization. A study was conducted by questionnaires sent employees in the federal government whose work qualified them as sources of competent authority. Ten questions were asked of line officers in various agencies to determine the impact which position classification and line administration have upon each other. The facts, opinions, and conditions disclosed by the replies of the respondents indicated that: (1) Position classifiers before classifying existing positions give the incumbents and/or supervisors an opportunity to explain

the duties, responsibilities, and qualifications required. (2) To varying degrees otherwise desirable organizational patterns were adjusted to obtain higher position classification grades. (3) Over 50 percent of the respondents had equal confidence in their own Bureau position classifiers and those of their Department and of the Civil Service Commission and one-third respected the ability of the Bureau technicians over all the others. (4) Position classifiers, to varying degrees, do give adequate explanations of the position classification system and the writing of standards, in general, provides active participation by administrators. (5) Two-thirds of the respondents felt that the position classification system achieves its underlying objective of equal pay for equal work, and all were in favor of continuing but strengthening the system. (6) Final position classification authority had been delegated to the bureaus, either in whole or in part. (7) Line officials were satisfied with the rate of speed that final grade allocations are made within the bureaus. (8) Restrictions of professional grades occurred at a low frequency rate and in varying degrees. (9) The position classification system was not too successful in providing uniform occupational terminology for use in communications. (10) Over one-half of the respondents felt that not enough support was given by management to enable position classifiers to do the best job. All respondents held responsible line administration jobs. Slightly over 85 percent had been in the federal government for ten years or more. Administrative work was performed to some degree by 80 percent, and professional work by slightly more than one-third. Penned comments of some respondents are quoted.—*Wendell H. Russell.*

Testing

Mandell, Milton M., "The Group Oral Performance Test." *Personnel Administration* (Part I), November, 1952; (Part II), January, 1953.—The group oral performance test involves an appraisal of dynamic behavior in a complex situation. This complexity is both the virtue of the method and its greatest difficulty. For management purposes, "personality" is concerned with how a person acts at various times and in various situations and what effect his actions have on those around him. This definition means it is not possible to differentiate sharply between personality, on the one hand, and intelligence, physical characteristics, knowledge, and skills, on the other. The most frequently used selection method now working is the oral interview. The typical individual interview conducted by one or more persons produces, through questions, information about the candidate's personality, as well as his experience record. The basic characteristics of the group oral performance test are: (1) a group of applicants are seen at one time rather than individually; and (2) the applicants interact with each other rather than with the interviewer or interviewers. It serves as a measure of personality by providing action and measuring the effect of those actions on both the raters and other members of the group. The use of the group oral becomes important for positions that have as a major function effectiveness in group situations, either as a member of a group, or as a leader of a group. Another value, which may be of equal importance, but not so easily demonstrable, is its production of spontaneous actions that reflect the real characteristics of the individual. The method assumes that raters will have insight into the characteristics needed for the job and an understanding of what they see. With this method there is direct opportunity to measure effectiveness in personal relationships—the fundamental skill of executives and an important skill of all those in management positions. It is highly desirable that this method be supplemented by written tests and by a thorough investigation of the candidate by inquiry of his former associates, including superiors, colleagues, and subordinates. This assumes that no one selection method by itself is adequate for the appraisal of complex human beings. (The articles, prepared as a pamphlet at the request of the Navy Department for use in its selection program of supervisory and executive personnel, include detailed instructions regarding the conduct of the group oral performance test.)—*Grace M. Pierson.*

Voris, Charles W., "Weighted Application Form." *Personnel Journal,* December 1952.—Most neglected among instruments used for the selection and placement of employees is the weighted application form. It was introduced approximately ten years ago for the hiring of salesmen and proved fairly successful. In recent years, there have been occasional attempts by industrial concerns to use the device in screening production applicants.

The weighted form makes a valuable screening and placement device; it can be used as an interviewer's check list, and the scores can be used later as checks on transfers and promotions.

Without going too deeply into the technical phases of its construction, it was developed by interviewing foremen of major departments.

They were asked to name their most successful and unsuccessful employees and to furnish certain pertinent information in regard to them. The data obtained was recorded in detail, and the record of each of the persons named was analyzed exhaustively in order to discover factors which characterized the successful people in contrast to the unsuccessful people in the same department. Questions were devised which would differentiate between success and failure, according to the data on the analysis sheet, and multiple questions were framed so that all possibilities were included. Weights for each factor were determined, involving a scoring range and assigning point values to each factor for each department. The final step is the determination of critical scores and validating the instrument. (Article contains facsimile of the weighted application form, the analysis sheet, and a sample question of the weighted application form.)—*Ruth L. Olson.*

Discrimination

KEENAN, VERNON and KERR, WILLARD A., "Unfair Employment Practices as Viewed by Private Employment Counselors." *Journal of Applied Psychology,* December, 1952.—Employment discrimination should be of concern to psychologists because hiring on the basis of prejudice supplants those objective instruments of placement and testing which psychologists develop, and—in terms of their own careers—tends to restrict the use of psychological skills in the employment procedure. Despite this valid interest, psychological literature on the subject is scarce. To obtain information on such discrimination, a questionnaire survey was decided on among a group in a good position to assess the *extent* to which such practices prevailed in private industry. The authors' own summary of the findings is as follows:

"A sample of private employment agency counselors in the Chicago area was requested by mail to cooperate in a study of unfair employment practices. (22 percent cooperated.) The replies of the 45 respondents suggest the following tentative conclusions: (1) According to the reports of these employment counselors, the ethnic group which bears the severest brunt of job discrimination is the Negro; 84 percent of the counselors report extreme difficulty in their placement, 'even if qualified.' (2) The second cluster of ethnic groups in order of job discrimination experience includes Mexicans and Orientals. (3) The third cluster (less intense discrimination) includes Slavs, Poles and Italians. (4) The fourth cluster includes Irish, English, and Germans. (5) Religious discrimination is directly largely against the Jews. (6) Discrimination is reported as specifically apparent in at least one-third of the job orders received by the private agency counselors. (7) A majority of counselors responding believe unfair employment practices to be deliberate company policy. (8) Two-thirds of the respondents report that the 'discrimination that does exist' makes their job more difficult. (9) The hypothesis that private employment agency counselors can supply critical information about the operation of discrimination in employment appears, from these results, to be justified." (Article has a table showing ethnic discrimination by percent in job placement and a list of pertinent references.)—*Horace Turner.*

Rating

BOWERS, WILLIAM H., "An Appraisal of Worker Characteristics as Related to Age." *Journal of Applied Psychology,* October, 1952. —Current census data suggest that by 1960 there will be nearly 15 million persons age 65 and over and nearly 50 million persons over age 45. Although our population is growing increasingly older, age discrimination in employment and mandatory pension plans tend to limit the potential productivity of older persons. From the standpoint of economic balance and defense, research and practical appraisals of the competence of older as compared to younger employees are needed. One such study was made of 3,162 workers of both sexes, ranging in age from 18 through 76, and performing various duties in an industrial plant. The workers ranged from unskilled laborers to foremen and minor executives. (More important executives and supervisory personnel were not included.) Data were obtained from the personnel records maintained for each employee and included age, date of hiring, and appraisals of competence by foremen. The number of terms in these appraisals was reduced from approximately 300 to a workable list of eight abilities, eight character traits, and four common faults. The frequency with which each trait was mentioned by supervisors for all persons in the age group was determined, and the net total of favorable and unfavorable traits for each employee was used as an index of his worth. Net appraisals of workers showed negligible differences between age groups but great individual differences at every age. However, supervisors did report older employees of both sexes as learning less readily and being slower. On the other hand, older workers were men-

tioned more frequently than younger ones as better in attendance, steadiness, and conscientiousness. No consistent age differences appeared in job knowledge, accuracy, dependability, and emotional stability. Employees over 65, and even 70 and over, were appraised very favorably. It would seem clear that arbitrary retirement at age 65 or hiring discriminations against employees because of age are questionable. Quite evidently, workers should be employed and retained on the basis of merit without reference to age. Oldsters can maintain productivity, thus making an extended productive life worthwhile, strengthen manpower resources, and lessen the possible economic burdens resulting from the dependency of large numbers of nonproductive older persons. (Article contains tables showing specific distributions of traits by age groups.)—*Earl R. Chambers.*

. . . The CSA

THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY of the United States and Canada, founded in 1906, is a non-profit association of public personnel agencies, together with persons engaged in public personnel work or interested in its improvement. Member agencies of the CSA are civil service commissions and boards and other similar governmental personnel offices. The CSA serves 400 public jurisdictions in the United States and in Canada. In addition, the organization also includes more than 1000 individual and affiliate members.

Briefly stated, the purposes of the CSA are these:

- To foster and develop interest in sound personnel administration in the public service, based on the principles of the merit system, and to encourage its wider application;

- To promote the study, development, and use of scientific methods of administration and research in the public personnel field;

- To serve as a clearing house for the collection and distribution of information concerning public personnel methods and procedures, and to provide a medium for the international exchange of information regarding the administration of personnel programs in government.

- To render a program of services to public personnel agencies, assisting them in meeting their administrative and technical problems with sound policies and methods.

To further these objectives CSA offers a varied program of activities, services, and publications to public personnel agencies, their staff members, and the general public. Full information about CSA membership will be sent on request.

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